The Social Studies

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The Teaching of History Never Had a Greater Challenge!

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It would be hard to imagine a classroom situation in which the instructor would have a greater opportunity or a greater challenge than that implicit in the teaching of modern history to Army trainees in college classes. Particularly has this been true in the college pre-flight program where every student was only a few steps removed from combat operations. Since much of the subject matter of the prescribed course in history dealt with this war and its background, it was only logical that many of the ideas and attitudes formed by the cadet in the classroom would later have a direct bearing upon his conduct on the battlefield.

In most respects the conditions under which the teaching was undertaken were extremely favorable. In one sense the make-up of the Army classes could not be improved upon. The background of the students was wide and diverse. Probably never before, and perhaps never again will the colleges have classes filled with such a wide variety of students. The differences included geographical representation, age, intelligence, academic preparation, army service, and previous occupational experience.

In general, all sections of the country were usually represented in every class. Quite often students from as many as twenty-five different states were present, and as a rule every cadet was from a different locality. Frequently the geographical distribution extended beyond the borders of Continental United States and reached into the Territories or into the homeland of a neighboring ally.

Usually all of the men, ages eighteen to twenty-six, had finished high school prior to their selection as aviation cadets. The percentage of men who had previously attended college, however, varied with the sections, which were segregated according to intelligence and scholastic aptitude. Sometimes the number of students who had attended college ran high, 50 per cent, and occasionally a section would have men assigned to it who had college degrees, even graduate degrees. By contrast, other sections would have a sprinkling of men who had not finished their high school work. Likewise the amount of training in history was anything but uniform. For example, most of the students had at least two years of high school history, but the variation ran from students with no history whatsoever to one student who had majored in this subject for his master's degree.

Almost equally important to academic background

of the students was their general maturity, conditioned by age and experience. With the exception of the few who had been students prior to enlistment, all of the men had at least one position in the workaday world; some had held five or six different jobs. Naturally the number of different trades and occupations which were represented among the students was large. In one class the number ran as high as thirty with a variety which included a former high school teacher, an able-bodied seaman, a florist, a pipe fitter's helper, and an undertaker's assistant. Probably never again will classes be characterized by such a wide assortment of students.

Perhaps more significant than their civilian careers was the military experiences which many of the cadets had prior to their assignment in the College Air Corps Training Program. Many of the men had served overseas and a considerable number had actual experience in combat. At one time in my classes five of my students had served from fifteen to twenty-four months in the Alaskan and the Aleutian areas; one completed twenty-five missions over Hitler's Europe as a gunner in a bomber crew; another, prior to enlistment was in the merchant marine and twice ran the gauntlet of German submarines and planes on a convoy going to Russia; and still another saw action with the Navy in the South Pacific in the early days of the war.

The contributions which men with such backgrounds could make to a course in modern history were obviously great. The subject, to say the least, was vitalized by first-hand accounts and by personal observations, although most of the men were reluctant to speak of the parts which they had personally played. However, most of the students who had been overseas volunteered freely and enthusiastically to describe distant lands which they had visited and foreign peoples with whom they had associated. At its very best such contributions brought a great deal of contemporary history to the classroom in a most dramatic way, besides serving to emphasize the smallness of the world and the closeness of events.

All of these factors made for a unique classroom situation, and many of them aided in effective teaching, for which there was a great opportunity. From the standpoint of factual knowledge, modern history had a wide open field. Few of the men were familiar with the events of the last twenty years; many of them did not know the pattern of aggression in their own times. More tragic still, while the war was very close to the lives of all, many of them had already participated in waging it, a surprisingly large number were not very clear as to the causes and conditions which brought it about. Hence by contributing to knowledge and understanding, the teacher had a great opportunity to render service to soldiership.

In problems adhesive to the attitudes and ideals of the students, the challenge to a teacher in social science was immense. The students, representing a cross section of American society, came to the course with many prejudices and illusions. Such illusions as: Freedom comes easy, money and production are invulnerable, this war will not settle anything—were widespread and deeply rooted. Likewise, there was a great deal of misconception in regard to our Allies, England and Russia. An appalling number of students professed suspicion and even hatred of one or both of these countries. Anglophobia was very common, and in every case its existence was based upon beliefs which did not square with the facts.

Then too, in respect to democracy, the core of the present war, there was much vagueness and even ignorance concerning its origin, development and present status. Few of the students realized the dangers which threaten any democratic government, and fewer still understood the shortcomings and imperfections of democracy as it now exists. Practically all of the students interpreted democracy to mean political democracy alone, and its extension to other aspects of society was usually not assumed. Since it was apparent that the returning service man would form an articulate element in our population, the situation offered still another challenge to the teacher.

In short, unless these men and their comrades on the battlefields were well-grounded in the principles of democracy, were aware of the threats to its security, and realized the responsibility of the democracies to world peace, the future of the United States as well as that of the rest of the world would be insecure. The teaching of history never had a greater challenge!

Lieutenant General Omar N. Bradley

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The class of 1915 at the United States Military Academy has produced more than thirty generals, among them Omar N. Bradley, son of a school teacher, a school teacher himself and a professional soldier by training. Doughboys who have served under him in Africa, Sicily, and France have recognized him as an infantry commander who plays his hand with rare skill and imagination, and who takes objectives on the dot without wasting lives. He has studied and practiced war as scientifically as any man can, and while modest and unpretentious he possesses surprising driving power.

The leader of the American Ground Forces in France was born on February 12, 1893, in Clark, Missouri, a community some fifty miles from the birthplace of General John J. Pershing. Reared in a small town, young Bradley learned to hunt and fish at an early age and upon the death of his father, became head of his family at the age of thirteen.

He attended high school at Moberly, Missouri, and while a brilliant and calculative student who always answered questions correctly, he never volunteered information. Handicapped by family financial circumstances, Bradley sought an appointment to West Point; and while gaining only an alternate appointment, he entered the Academy with the class of 1915. At West Point, he was an outstanding athlete, playing both baseball and football and associating with Dwight Eisenhower and Joseph T. McNarney. His ability in military affairs came rapidly to the foreground while a cadet, and he served as cadet lieutenant of Company F during his last year.

The class of 1915 was noted for its crack baseball team and Bradley, who played left field, turned in the best batting average (.383) during his senior year. At graduation he stood in the upper third of his class and was ranked number forty-four in the class of one hundred and sixty-four men. Always serious and paying strict attention to detail, he accumulated only nineteen demerits during his four year course and was rated sixth in his class on the basis of conduct and efficiency.

On June 12, 1915, Bradley was commissioned a second lieutenant of infantry and assigned to the Fourteenth Infantry at Fort G. Wright, Washington. Here he remained until 1916 when he saw service on the Mexican border with United States troops. During the remaining years of the First World War the young lieutenant engaged in assignments that took him to various parts in the continental United States.

From September, 1919, to September, 1920, Bradley served as professor of military science and tactics at South Dakota State College and at the conclusion of this tour of duty went to West Point to begin a four year term as an instructor in mathematics. In 1925 Bradley attended the advanced course at the Infantry School, Fort Benning, Georgia, and upon graduation he went to Hawaii for various infantry duties. He remained in Hawaii until March, 1928, and during the last year of this tour he was in charge of National Guard and Reserve Affairs at Fort Shafter, Hawaii.

Upon his return to the United States he attended the Command and General Staff School at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas; from 1929 to 1933 he studied as well as taught in the Infantry School at Fort Benning.

In June, 1938, Bradley, now a colonel, was in Washington for duty with the General Staff of which he became assistant secretary in July, 1939. The War Department in February, 1941, directed that he assume command of the Infantry School at Fort Benning and he expanded the organization from a small peacetime enrollment of three to four hundred students to a giant officer candidate school, handling more than 17,000 candidates at a time.

Promoted to brigadier general he became the youngest officer to reach that rank from among the graduates of the class of 1915 of the United States Military Academy. One year later the War Department assigned the general to the Eighty-second Infantry Division and in a period of four months he developed an outstanding organization.

Moving from the command of the Eighty-second, he became commanding general of the Twenty-eighth Division at Camp Livingston, Louisiana, and soon had established a reputation in the training and conditioning of troops for combat. While with the Twenty-eighth Division, the general often accompanied his troops on foot marches that sometimes took his organization on marches ranging from twenty-five to thirty miles.

In February, 1943, General George C. Marshall as Chief of Staff assigned General Bradley to act as field aide to General Dwight D. Eisenhower in the North African theater of operations.

At the time of Bradley's arrival in North Africa, all was not well with the British and American forces. During the period from February 14 to February 26, 1943, the Axis forces, attempting to escape from the trap which the Allies were setting for them

in Tunisia, lashed out with fierce blows, particularly at Kasserine Pass.

When the general arrived in North Africa, he was without combat experience and his reputation had been gained through twenty years of teaching and studying. He proceeded to make first hand observation at considerable risk to himself and he demanded that United States troops, particularly the Second Army Corps, fight as a unified group. When General Patton was placed in command of the Seventh American Army and directed by the War Department to begin planning for the invasion of Sicily and Italy, Omar Bradley took over the command of the Second Corps.

His first major move, one of great tactical importance, brought about the realignment of the American divisions under his command. The First Infantry Division, abandoning the right flank of the line, fanned out to become the left flank and the Thirty-fourth Division moved from the right to the left flank. Shortly thereafter, the British and American forces began an uninterrupted advance which resulted in the surrender of the German and Italian forces in the second week of May, 1943.

Having driven the Axis from North Africa, the American and British forces turned their attention to Sicily, the stepping stone to the Fortress Europe. Here the Seventh Army under General Patton performed brilliantly, and the Second Corps under the command of General Bradley formed the backbone of the invading unit. Two weeks after the conclusion of combat in Sicily the invasion of Italy began when strong British and American forces crossed the straights of Messina onto the Italian mainland.

In Sicily, Bradley's troops knocked out Troina, Randazzo, and Messina in a thirty-eight day campaign which further developed and brought home the theory that German forces were far from invincible.

American troops, having witnessed Bradley's successes in the North African and Sicilian campaigns, began to realize the military genius of the quiet and unassuming teacher of mathematics. With the allied campaign under way on the Italian mainland General Bradley was tranferred to the European theater of operations to begin planning for the invasion of Europe from the west. The selection of the fifty-year-old Missouri-born mathematics teacher for the momentous task was met with approval by soldiers and officers. Upon his arrival in England in September, 1943, he set up emergency headquarters for the staff assigned to assist him in the preparation of the ground forces for the invasion.

With this accomplished, General Bradley flew to Washington to consult with General Marshall on plans of strategy and tactics. While at home in the United States he found time to visit West Point and to announce the engagement of his daughter Elizabeth to Cadet Henry Shaw Beukema, son of the famous geopolitician, Colonel Henry Beukema. The senior Beukema and General Bradley are friends and classmates of long standing having graduated together with the class of 1915 at West Point. Bradley's trip to the United States lasted for some eighteen days, and upon his return to England he plunged immediately into the thousand and one details necessary for arrangement of the invasion.

In December, 1943, General Sir Bernard Montgomery arrived in England and with General Bradley began to work out the detail plans for the invasion of France through Normandy. During the seven months from October, 1943, to May, 1944, division after division of the American troops arrived in the British Isles, and Montgomery and Bradley often went into the field to inspect the training.

Beginning in January, 1944, the Allies launched the greatest air assault in history against Adolf Hitler's European fortress. The purpose of the assault conducted jointly by the Royal Air Force and the American Air Force was to soften up the continent in preparation for the day of invasion. Thousands upon thousands of tons of bombs were dropped on coastal defenses, railway junctions, factories, and oil refineries. Thousands of miles of railroad trackage in France, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Germany itself were torn to shreds, and little opposition was encountered from the Luftwaffe during the raids.

The American Air Force inaugurated shuttle bombing with bases in the Mediterranean as well as in Britain to keep the Nazis in a constant state of tension. While the air forces of the United Nations were softening up the coastal defenses in France and elsewhere, troops of the British and American ground forces began to assemble at staging areas as early as March 29, 1944. Units which had reached their peak were moved to the staging areas first, among them being the First and Ninth American Divisions which had already seen extensive combat service. Transportation facilities in Great Britain were sorely taxed, and strategic railway centers in the British Isles were overburdened in the effort to move supplies and troops to appointed places.

During this preparatory period Generals Eisenhower, Montgomery, and Bradley, assisted by their staffs, continued the training of troops with full knowledge that D-Day, the day of invasion, was not far off. The Allies began to assemble the greatest fleet of ships ever placed under one command, and embarkation points along the British coast were placed under strict censorship. Thirty days before D-Day, the last full-scale invasion exercises were conducted under the guidance of the big three, Gen-



Press Association

LIEUTENANT GENERAL OMAR N. BRADLEY

erals Eisenhower, Montgomery, and Bradley. Five weeks before D-Day, the headquarters of the Allied Expeditionary Forces were moved from London to the shore on the south of England, and here was assembled the vital information necessary for the successful storming of the French coast.

The day for the invasion of France, originally set for the 5th of June, 1944, was delayed twenty-four hours because of inclement weather. During this interval both Generals Eisenhower and Bradley visited American and British forces and bid them good luck.

The Eighty-second American Air-borne Division spearheaded the attack on the morning of the 6th of June and landed before dawn at various points inside the French coast along the Normandy peninsula.

Considering the scope of the operations and the large number of troops involved, only small casualties were inflicted upon the invading forces bearing out a statement by General Bradley that if the Allied forces were properly trained and equipped, the forcing of the beachheads would not result in an undue amount of casualties. The predictions of the Missouri-born school teacher materialized in actual operations for within forty-eight hours after H-Hour of D-Day, the Allied forces had established beachheads from which the best of the Nazi divisions were unable to drive them.

The Allies struck France in the greatest invasion the world has ever seen and one which the world had awaited since the disastrous British withdrawal at Dunkirk in 1940. The allied armada consisted of four thousand ships, an air fleet of eleven thousand planes, and many divisions of British and American troops. Eight hundred fighting craft, ranging from battleships to PT boats, guarded the 3,200 transports and landing vessels in the expedition. The operation was supported by the British battleship *Warspite* and the American dreadnaughts the *Texas, Nevada,* and *Arkansas*. With the first waves of infantry on the beach, artillery, tanks and other of the components of the task forces stormed ashore. During the next several days the American First, Fourth, Ninth, Twenty-ninth, and Seventy-ninth Divisions landed on the Normandy Peninsula and established contact with the Eighty-second and One hundred and first Air-borne Divisions which had opened the invasion.

American troops under the direction of Lieutenant General Bradley rolled forward after landing to isolate the Cherbourg Peninsula. Six days after D-Day, Prime Minister Winston Churchill, accompanied by Field Marshal Jan Smuts, Premier of South Africa, General George C. Marshall, General Henry H. Arnold, Admiral Ernest E. King, and General Sir Alan Brooke inspected the beachhead which had been established by the combined invasion forces.

The professional reputation established by Bradley through his expert handling of the American forces in the North African campaign has been enhanced by his proficiency and competence in the French campaign. He has already established himself as a master tactician, and flies whenever possible to gain a better understanding of the strategic and tactical situations before him. The handling of American ground forces and his ability to train and condition troops has been a major factor in the successful operations in the European theater.

Disney Techniques in Educational Films

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For some years the educational film has been given a place in our schools and has been used for instructional purposes. But it was not until the tragic episode at Pearl Harbor and our nation became involved in a great global conflict that we fully awakened to the limitless possibilities of this invaluable teaching tool.

The impetus given to motion picture techniques by the extensive use of films in the educational program of our armed services and the production achievement of industry has already resulted in training films fully twenty years in advance of those of pre-war days.

Foremost among the leaders responsible for this unprecedented progress in the development of the new type of instructional film is Walt Disney of Burbank, California.

On December 8, 1941 Disney started his first war contract. Previous to that time, his largest annual production was 37,000 feet. Geared to war, the Disney Studios turned out some 204,000 feet of film during the year 1942-1943. Ninety-five per cent of this was under government contract.

It represented the production of a specialized type of training film. Each picture dealt with a specific

problem. Each had a particular purpose. The enemy must be destroyed in whatever form and wherever found. The skies must be freed from menace of the Japanese bombers, the seas cleared of the lurking Axis U-boats. Then, too, there was the assignment of weather problems to be solved.

Almost overnight the Disney artists found themselves in a new role. Today the animated film industry is looking forward to the instruction of the masses.

Today Disney is busy on educational assignments. Already he has produced a considerable number of pictures for the office of Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs for distribution in Latin America. Among these is the 16 mm. film entitled *The Amazon Awakens*. It incorporates the Disney techniques—color and the combining of live action with animation.

Opening with the story of El Dorado and Pizarro's vain search for the kingdom of gold, it relates Orellana's journey down the mighty Amazon. With the historical background, it weaves the importance of the present day Amazonia—the awakening of the new El Dorado. It pictures Iquitos, Peru, with its wealth of mahogany, Manaos, destined to become the hub of Latin America, Boa Vista, the site of Ford's initial rubber planting experiments in Brazil where he has established the modern community of Fordlandia, and Belem, the gateway to the vast jungle areas and the chief shipping center of the lower river.

It emphasizes the potential wealth of resources of the vast hinterland, the program of colonization and the agricultural experiments now underway.

Excellent maps show the topographical aspects of the mighty valley and the countries that have long claimed the head waters of the great river.

Although not yet released, the film will be made available for use in this country. It should be of real value for geography classes in the elementary grades and social studies groups both on the junior and senior high school level.

Other films to be released in Spanish and Portuguese and distributed in Latin America are a series



Courtesy of Walt Disney Studios

WITH INTEREST AND EXCITEMENT THE DISNEY STUDIOS ARE INVESTIGATING THE POSSIBILITIES OF EDUCATIONAL FILMS

on health. The first three of these—*The Human Body, What Is Disease?* and *The Transmission of Disease*—are in black and white and form an introductory group. The others deal with specific diseases, such as tuberculosis and malaria.

Produced with the hope that they may contribute to the health and happiness of our neighbors south of the Rio Grande, the introductory group of films, by simple narration and animation, show that man's most valuable possession is his own body. In detail they go on to explain how the human body requires fresh air, a well balanced diet and pure drinking water. They present disease as man's worst enemy, show the sources of germs and the methods that should be used to combat them.

Disney is rightly called the master of the art of animation, a technique that is invaluable in educational films. He is also famous for his cartoons, but these should be divorced from instructional films. They are primarily for purposes of entertainment—for laughs, and have little, if any, place in the class room. For it must ever be borne in mind that in the educational motion picture the accent is on instruction; in the theatrical film it is on entertainment.

On 35 mm. film is Disney's workshop presentation of the section of *Rite of Spring* taken from his famous *Fantasia* and tentatively entitled, *This Earth of Ours*. Here is the artist's technique of color at its best. The film contains a wealth of material that might be utilized to advantage in classes both in physical science and in life science. Here is enacted on the screen the story of the heavens—the sun, moon and stars, the formation and cooling of the earth's surface, the gathering of the seas, the development of plant and animal life, and finally the appearance of man.

A day in the Disney Studios is sufficient to convince any audio-visual educationalist that a new era in instructional films is at hand. Motion pictures in color, combining live action with animation, offer limitless possibilities. An effective tool in winning the war, they will command even a greater place in building the peace—in conveying and developing attitudes and concepts, in spreading information and teaching skills—in laying the foundations for the kind of a world we want to live in tomorrow.



Courtesy of Walt Disney Studios

ARTIST WARD KIMBALL PLOTS THE ANIMATION. THOUSANDS OF INDIVIDUAL DRAWINGS MUST BE DONE BEFORE THE CHARACTERS TAKE LIFE ON THE SCREEN

Social Studies in the Post-War World

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A post-war world with its ever-present threat of economic upheaval and depression always creates tremendous socio-economic problems. There is, in addition, the problem of coping with post-war hysteria and jingoism with its concomitant appeal for "good citizens." Naturally, the school as the agent of the community, must deal with these problems and attain satisfactory solutions for them, if it is to continue worthy of its existence.

In this, the high school is of primary importance. After the First World War, high school attendance increased tremendously. This was partly because parents, many of whom were denied that educational privilege, wanted it for their children. But, largely, it was because of the necessity to have a longer period of schooling due to the competition created by the return to the economic sphere of members of the armed forces and those thrown out of work by the reorganization of industry to a peace-time basis. There is now every reason to believe that the same situation will follow this conflict. The problem is how the school can best equip the student for this competition.

The solution would seem to be an academic-vocational training in which the student would be equipped for his economic place in society. For even now, we are seeing the difficulties created when people are merely highly-trained technicians incapable of adjusting themselves to anything other than their specific field. This, in turn, makes them economically helpless when their field is closed.

The school must provide for adaptation as well as specific training. Here, the high school is especially important. Since it will probably have a larger population in the post-war period, it will also have the largest opportunity to create solutions to post-war problems. For it will extend to a larger section of the community than any other single institution and will reach them at the age when they can best be trained. The elementary school will fail in preparing the student to cope effectively with post-war problems because it must relinquish him soon after he has learned the fundamental tools of education and before he has the opportunity to utilize them fully. The college can only supplement such training, since at best it receives only a small proportion of the total possible school population. Thus, the high school becomes the most important factor, though the other two certainly are absolutely necessary.

Undoubtedly, vocational education will receive a tremendous impetus, but certain cultural aspects must also be stressed. In this, the social studies make a definite contribution. Even here, though, there is a definite question. Are they to be taught for their own sake, or are they to be merely adjuncts taught from the vocational viewpoint to meet vocational needs? If they are taught for themselves alone, they will be of little value, for they will be only incidentally related to real life situations. If they are taught from the vocational standpoint and correlated with vocational needs, they will be of some value, for they will give the student an understanding of his own social, economic, and political problems. Also, they will leave him with the broader understanding necessary to find solutions for his problems in an interdependent world.

It would seem, then, that some kind of compromise must be reached. There must be a broad program of social studies, interrelated with the vocational curriculum, which will give the student a general understanding of the whole area of human relationships. And there must be, in addition, a more specific kind of social science related to this practical, vocational work and given as part of the theory connected with it.

Unfortunately, this creates a problem of teacher-training. Teachers in the higher institutions must learn to evaluate thoroughly socio-economic trends and must be prepared to correlate and coordinate the cultural and vocational viewpoints of the social studies with vocational training. Here, the colleges and universities must do their part in order to make high school reorganization possible. The individual, to make the best adjustment, will need training from both viewpoints, so both must be taught.

Assuming that this is done, we now have an economically well-prepared high school graduate. He has the vocational training for his life work plus a broad view which, psychologically, makes for better adaptibility to shifting conditions. However, the social viewpoint must also be considered.

In addition to being equipped to make a living, the individual must also be able to take his place in society as a good citizen and contribute to that society as an individual. Again, it is the function of the high school, in coordination with the college and university, to create these traits. This can be done in several ways.

By vocational education which is, of necessity, largely individual, there will be a catering to the

individual needs and desires of the student by the school corroborated by competent guidance. Individual needs will and must further be met in the social studies curriculum by teaching these studies in connection with the vocational work. The student will so learn to think of himself as an individual, not merely a cog in society, and will act as such. Requirement for post-war success will then be fulfilled.

Yet, there remains the problem of how to create good citizens—citizens who are cooperative, who recognize their interdependence with others, and who realize that the most effective way of meeting problems is to learn when not to be an individual and when to band with others to seek solutions mutually. This, too, the school must teach.

Citizenship must be created, not only theoretically by the teaching of history, civics, and problems of democracy as they are today, but it must be taught through actual practice. The classroom must be a laboratory in which teamwork is suggested and in which students learn, through their own interaction, the value of citizenship. In other words, social studies must be taught only insofar as they implement practical experience or are necessary for an understanding of broad citizenship principles such as loyalty to the state and participation in government.

To sum up, the preparation of individuals must begin in the teacher-training institutions where there should be a sound evaluation of socio-economic trends. This training can then be transmitted to the high school which will make life preparations through catering to individual incentives, needs, and adaptations. In short, the school will become a miniature society where student problems are of primary importance and where adaptation to socio-economic trends and problems is stressed.

School Days in War Times

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What changes have occurred in our classrooms as a result of the war? Each of us could enumerate many as we look back over the three years which have passed since the attack on Pearl Harbor. Perhaps it may be interesting to review the first week of war in order to contrast it with the present. We believe that ere another December arrives the contrast may be even greater. So let us turn the pages of a journal in which we find recorded some of the actual events, reactions and activities of our first week at war.

December 8, 1941. Excited and somewhat bewildered, boys and girls coming into the schoolroom were asking unusual questions this morning.

> "How was it possible for the Japanese to attack Honolulu and do so much damage as was reported by radio yesterday? Isn't it one of our strongest naval bases?"
>
> "Do you believe that 350 people were killed and that two of our battleships were sunk? Surely the Japs must be exaggerating the damage they have done."
>
> "We heard the news flash yesterday after lunch, but the announcer said that it was 7:55 A.M. in Honolulu. What is the difference in our time and theirs?"
>
> "Have we a recent map of the Pacific area that we can put on the bulletin board? Is Honolulu located on Pearl Harbor?"
>
> "May we come to your room at 11:30 (12:30 Washington time) to hear the President's address to both Houses of Congress? Will he ask Congress to declare war on Germany as well as on Japan?"

Such questions indicate our class activities for this day. Never have high school pupils been more interested in what might be called a geography lesson. Map study followed their interest in the Hawaiian Islands, Malaya, Hong Kong, Guam, the Philippines, Wake, Midway and other islands. The International Date Line was located and differences in time were investigated. At noon Sunday in New York the clocks in the following cities record the time as follows:

Honolulu	6:30 A.M. Sunday
Manila	1:00 A.M. Monday
Tokyo	2:00 A.M. Monday

Distances between the United States and Honolulu, Honolulu and Tokyo, Tokyo and other Japanese objectives were measured on the map and an estimate of miles was made. There were reasons now for learning the products and the importance of the various islands and certain Asiatic cities. The naval strength and the resources of Japan were compared to ours. The latest information gives the following data:

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	U.S.	Japan
Battleships	17	28
Carriers	7	8
Cruisers	37	46
Destroyers	172	125
Submarines	113	71

Our past trade policy was discussed and there was criticism of our delay in placing an embargo on scrap iron and oil to Japan.

At 11:30 over the radio came the information concerning the assemblage of prominent officials who waited in the House to hear the President. There were the Representatives, the Senators, the members of the Supreme Court and the Cabinet. Speaker Sam Rayburn dropped the gavel for order and introduced the President. Mr. Roosevelt began to read:

> "Yesterday, December 7, 1941—a date which will live in infamy—the United States of America was suddenly and deliberately attacked by naval and air forces of the Empire of Japan."

On through the short speech the pupils listened with thoughtful and solemn faces. No one knows just what thoughts were going through their minds.

> "We will not only defend ourselves but will make it very certain that this form of treachery shall never again endanger us. . . . We will gain the inevitable triumph—so help us God. I ask that the Congress declare . . . a state of war. . . ."

The President left. The members of the Senate retired to the Senate. The radio announcer said that we would hear the National Anthem played from the studio while we waited for further news. This time we were more deeply stirred by "The Star Spangled Banner" than ever before.

Soon we had more news. Our announcer stated that in twelve minutes, less than an hour from the beginning of the President's address, the Senate had passed the declaration of war 82 to 0. The House vote was 388 to 1. Miss Jeannette Rankin of Montana was the lone dissenter.

Teddy, our student from Cuba, is proudly telling his news over and over to different groups. "President Batista has already declared that he will stand with the United States in its war with Japan." Reports from the Caribbean countries and South America indicate that we shall have a united front. However, Argentina's President stated that Argentina's attitude would be that of "absolute neutrality." (Later news comes telling us that Argentina's Foreign Minister Guinazu announced that a Cabinet Council would be held tomorrow to issue a decree declaring the United States whould not be considered a belligerent power in the conflict with Japan.)

Canada's Cabinet has requested King George to declare war on Japan in the name of Canada.

This Monday was a long day at school. High school boys and girls were wondering about their future. They were asking about the probability of the draft age being dropped to eighteen, what effect the war would have on one's possibilities of a college education, and if there would be another depression after this war. Serious and solemn were the thoughts passing through the minds of America's youth on the day that our nation entered the war.

December 9. This morning students are exchanging their latest information gathered from the early broadcasts. One of the senior girls thinks the news from San Francisco almost incredible. She asks,

> "Did you hear the report that two squadrons of fifteen enemy planes each flew over California last night?"

Someone answers quickly,

> "Yes, and it was lucky for the Californians that no bombs were dropped. I guess that we must have frightened them away somehow."

After our first shock on Sunday afternoon, we find that today we are still wondering how it all happened. There seems to be no denying the fact that our Navy was not on the alert at Honolulu. Little news is coming through. We keep our radios on most of the time in order to catch the news flashes that interrupt all programs, but they usually add very little or nothing to what we have heard before. So many reports are unconfirmed, too. Our pupils along with the public raise the questions which imply criticism of our forces in Honolulu. Undoubtedly the Japanese attackers had been approaching for several days but the Navy knew nothing about it. It was a typical Sunday morning with everybody taking their ease. Bombs began falling on Honolulu. People thought that it was a practice maneuver and did not realize what was happening until they heard the radio reports. This was the first time in history that the United States had been attacked first.

A large number of the pupils expressed their resentment at Japan's treachery.

> "The Japanese could not have done worse; they attacked us at the very time that their special envoy, Kurusu, and their ambassador, Nomura, were at the Department of State in conversation with Secretary Hull."

Then someone promptly asked:

> "Did you hear what Mr. Hull told the envoys from Japan?"

Mr. Hull was quite angry when he received Japan's answer to the United States proposals for settlement of the Pacific problems. (These proposals had been handed to the Japanese on November 26.) The answer stated that Japan had always maintained an attitude of fairness and had made all possible con-

cessions to reach a settlement but that the United States ignored realities and imposed her own selfish views upon others. Therefore, Japan could not accept the proposal. Mr. Hull spared no words after he read this answer. It is reported that he said to the envoys:

> "In all my fifty years of public service I have never seen a document that was more crowded with infamous falsehoods and distortions—infamous falsehoods and distortions on a scale so huge that I never imagined that any government on this planet was capable of uttering them."

We went to our classroom files to review Mr. Hull's background and his past record. We read accounts of his life and looked at pictures of him. If a man of his temperament and his caliber said this kind of thing, we felt that he must have had just cause. We agreed with him even more after reviewing Japan's activities of the last decade.

A newspaper clipping which was brought in today points out the fact that when the Japanese attacked the United States outposts Sunday that they followed the same tactics of surprise attack without declaring war that they utilized when they attacked Russia in the Far East in 1904. We check on this statement and find, however, that there was a difference in that Japan attacked Russia in 1904 three days after the last note was sent to Russia (in regard to protecting the independence and territorial integrity of Korea) but Hawaii was attacked *at the time* the last note was being delivered to Secretary Hull in Washington.

Restrictions on the news are becoming more drastic than the normal censorship but we are learning a little more about conditions in Honolulu—Reports tell us that 1,500 are dead in Hawaii with an equal number wounded (instead of the 350 as first reported). Our late afternoon broadcasts inform us of two air raid warnings that swept New York City shortly after noon. It was discovered that alarms resulted from "phony" tips. However, a million school children had been sent home and people had been ordered off the streets. Times Square went on about the same as usual although the people hadn't the slightest idea whether the alarm was real or not.

December 10. Never have more of our students brought newspaper clippings for the bulletin board. We have maps of strategic places, pictures of the most important people and articles which tell the news stories of the most recent happenings.

General MacArthur assures us that "every possible defense measure is being undertaken" in Manila. This city was bombed the first night of the Japanese attack in the Pacific. The Japanese have landed at two points in northern and western Luzon. It seems that Fifth Columnists are assisting with light signals to mark targets.

The reports from Japan boast that they took Guam after one day of fighting. They also claim to have possession of Wake.

Japan attacked not only the United States but also the British at Singapore and the Siamese in Thailand. Of course the R.A.F. is fighting back but after a few hours the Siamese gave up. This puts Japan in a desirable position for an attack on Burma or to move down the Malay Peninsula toward Singapore.

Our high school Defense Council which was organized several weeks ago met today to enlarge the program and to plan for greater cooperation from the pupils for the "all out war effort." Even though we are about 300 miles from the coast, we must plan for air raid drills. First aid classes must be organized and scheduled. Everyone seems anxious to do something and is merely waiting to be told for what he is needed.

December 11. During the lunch period the senior class president came into my room to inquire if I had read McLemore's column in today's paper. He had clipped it from his paper and asked if he might read it aloud to the class during the next period. Some of the paragraphs which amused or seemed to impress the class most are:

> "The skunk was all-a-strut at the Bronx Zoo today. He looked as if a weight had been lifted from his shoulders.
>
> The jackals preened themselves near the name plates that identified them for what they were. . . .
>
> Word of Japan's attack on the U.S. had reached the zoo.
>
> At last the animals and reptiles that mankind has long considered as the most despicable form of life had been lifted from the cellar. The degenerates of the Orient, the little creatures who walk like men, had displaced them at the bottom of the ladder. . . .
>
> If the skunks were smiling (and I'll always say they were) they had reason to. No longer will men condemn the actions of others by saying it was a 'skunkish' trick. Much more damning will be the phrase 'Of all the lowdown Japanese things to do.' Can you imagine a skunk, even a paroled skunk, sending a fellow skunk to engage a neighbor in a friendly conversation while he completed his preparations to let the neighbor have it from behind? . . .
>
> The first Japanese bomb that struck the palm-fringed island of Oahu is likely to go down in history as the most destructive missile ever loosed by a warring nation. . . .
>
> If you don't think so just consider what that

first bomb has done in this nation within the short space of four or five days. From being the dis-United States we have lived up to our name. . . .

The Stars and Stripes is flying in every heart as well as on the flagpoles, and for the first time in many years the pledge of allegiance—'One nation indivisible'—has become an actuality. . . ."

Interesting comments from class members followed the reading of the article. Some thought the section dealing with the news at the zoo clever and amusing; others did not like it at all, saying: "That's just what war does to so many people." They agreed heartily that the nation is united as they have never known it to be before.

This morning Hitler and Mussolini declared war on the United States. At noon President Roosevelt sent a message to Congress and shortly after three o'clock he had the declaration of war on Germany and Italy.

December 12. We are surprised to hear the announcement that Secretary of Navy Frank Knox has arrived in Honolulu because there had been no announcement that he had left for Hawaii. Some of the boys express hopes that he will find out who was responsible for our being caught unawares—and that when he returns we can know exactly what damage has been done.

High school boys and girls are intensely interested in a bill which was introduced in the House today. It proposes registration of all men from nineteen to forty-four years old inclusive for training and service in the armed forces. Men from eighteen to sixty-four would be required to register for whatever defense duties might be assigned to them.

This Friday as we leave school we feel that the week end will be different than those we have known in the past. After all our adolescents are experiencing their first week end during war time.

December 15. Today is the birthday of our Bill of Rights. It was 150 years ago that the first ten amendments were added to the Constitution. As we celebrate the anniversary this year, it no doubt has a deeper meaning for us. We are thinking more about *how* these liberties were won for us and along with this thought comes the realization of our duty to preserve these liberties. Perhaps never have these liberties been more seriously threatened than they are now. This is certainly the opportune time for schools to stress the importance of the *duties* attached to these civil liberties. Our assembly program today followed this theme. Against the background of the Statue of Liberty different pupils gave a brief history of how each liberty was won and stated the obligation that accompanies it. Hearts beat faster as the school band played "The Star Spangled Banner" at the close of the program.

In our social science classes we reviewed the Magna Charta and the Petition of Right, realizing that our Bill of Rights had its beginning even earlier than 1791, when it was added to our Federal Constitution. The struggle for democracy has been a long one and we are determined to preserve our heritage.

The Ins and Outs of the Wayside Inn

MARY ROSSITER ANTROBUS
New Hope, Pennsylvania

In these days of haste, it becomes increasingly difficult to realize the indispensability of the early inns and the important role they played in our history, both political and social. Within their walls, the fatigued traveler found rest, refreshment and entertainment. Here space was provided for political meetings and patriotic gatherings. Before their doors, slaves, criminals, and paupers were auctioned as freely as were boots and cotton goods. Here dueling matches were arranged and expeditions planned. They served as business exchanges, post offices, hospitals, recruiting stations, garrisons, and officer's headquarters. Selectmen, deacons, and elders met in their rooms to discuss town business or ecclesiastical affairs. Upper rooms, at times, served as temporary jails and courts were frequently convened in their parlors. One of our states, Missouri, was born in a tavern; its legislature met there, and within its halls, the first lieutenant-governor was inaugurated.

The cost of a license to keep a public house in Pennsylvania in 1721 was sixty pounds, current silver of America; the charge for permission to sell ale only, twenty pounds. Licenses were issued with the understanding that innkeepers were, at all times, to be of good behavior and not to suffer any drunkenness, unlawful gaming, or other disorders. In a grant to Ruth Hoskins of Chester, Pennsylvania, in 1726, it was stipulated that the use of "melasses or other materials" in brewing of beer and ale was forbidden. It seems that in the halcyon days of our forefathers, folks had a penchant for good liquor. Constables visited establishments from time to time to inspect

the premises and reports of findings were sometimes attached to petitions for renewal of license.

The Puritans were even less frivolous than their brethren in the Middle Colonies for listed among games forbidden by law one finds carding, dicing, tally, bowls, billiards, slide groat, shuffleboard, quoits, loggets, and ninepins. The inspector of Puritan inns, or "ordinaries" as they were termed, was dubbed "the tithing man." It was his duty to list for the constable the names of those detected gaming or in a drunken state, and to warn tavern-keepers to refuse to sell liquor to those who had imbibed too freely. The inspector was aided in the spying business by ministers and elders. This required no great effort on the part of the preacher as license for keeping ordinaries were issued with the understanding that these houses be erected near a meeting house, at least within one mile. Since worshippers rode long distances to attend services, sermons were lengthy and churches often uncomfortably cold, the warm inn was well patronized. Innkeepers were instructed, however, to harbor no loiterers during hours of worship.

A number of early taverns had served other purposes previous to their occupancy as inns. Frequently they were of historic repute. The Indian Queen in Philadelphia had been the home of Richard Penn. The Thirteen Stars at Trenton once had been the official residence of Lewis Morris, the first royal governor of New Jersey. Kingsbury as it was then known, was a two story structure containing eight large rooms, each with its fireplace. In the rear and adjoining, stood a stone kitchen also two stories in height, the second story of which was utilized for servants' quarters. An additional story with a gable roof was added when the house was leased for tavern purposes. Two rooms on the south side of the hallway on the first floor were converted into what was known as the "Long Room" to be used for public assemblies.[1]

Other early taverns were less pretentious buildings of logs, bricks or stone. Stone structures appeared more frequently in New Jersey and in Pennsylvania than in New England or the Northwest.

Pioneer inns of the Northwest were simply log cabins with either earthern or puncheon floors and improvised stairways held together with wooden pegs, leading to small attics floored by poles. Wooden pegs served for construction purposes when forged nails were not obtainable; wooden latches, with strings attached served as door locks. That those who wished to enter might be privileged to do so, strings hung on the outside during the day but at night were withdrawn to prevent the entrance of undesirable prowlers.

A cave forty feet wide and twenty feet high claims the title of "oldest tavern" in Missouri. Here, in St. Charles County, boatmen sometimes took shelter from the heavy storms on the river and carved their names beside the Red Man's mural decorations of birds and animals.

One of the oldest Missouri inns was the Cross Keys Tavern on Boone's Lick Trail. This structure of three-room length was built of hewn logs which in later years acquired a clapboard covering. Front and rear porches extended the full length of this one and a half story building. Its spacious rooms twenty four feet square, were trimmed in black walnut.

Of unusual interest is the hostelry at Arrow Rock, an ancient Indian village on the Santa Fé Trail. Bricks, made from fine clay found in the vicinity, were burnt by slaves and used in the construction of the inn. Black walnut, hewn from the neighboring forests, served as framework and for all interior decorations. Wooden pegs were used to hold in place the floors of hand-hewn planks, and hand-wrought hinges to hang the panelled doors. This inn boasted of seven bedrooms, each with its own staircase. The squaw wife of Kit Carson scorned beds and took her nap on a buffalo robe before the open fireplace when she visited him at this tavern. It is said that a trap door leading to the wine cellar was in front of the fireplace.

Inns, in and near Philadelphia, were numerous, for this city was not only an important commercial and cultural center in the eighteenth century, but also, for a time, the national capital. An early Philadelphia inn is thus described: "The building is constructed of heavy timber, its frame being filled with brick and the brick covered with plaster of oyster shell, lime and mud. It is one story and a half high with peaked roof of split shingles. The kitchen has a flagged floor, a doorway through which a cart of firewood can be drawn and a chimney nearly 16 feet wide."

Due to the few large settlements, great numbers of inns failed to spring up quickly in the South. The pioneer stopped where he chanced to be and was shown hospitality usually without charge. In fact, plantation owners are said to have welcomed this contact with the traveling public. However, by 1670, inns became numerous throughout Virginia and restrictions as to their number were made. Permission was granted to build one near a court house and one at a ferry. Those at ferries appear to have been less pretentious, even though more sorely needed than the stage inns.

The Fountain Inn, built in Baltimore about 1782

[1] Carlos Godfrey, *History of the Mechanics Bank of Trenton, New Jersey*, p. 8.

at a cost of ten thousand dollars was planned around a courtyard much like that of an old English inn. With its ballroom, its unsurpassed cuisine, and comfortable quarters for man, plus stabling for eighty horses, it was no ordinary inn.

As early as 1656 the General Court of Massachusetts subjected to a fine each community failing to sustain an inn. Special inducements were offered those willing to keep such public houses. These privileges included exemptions from taxes, land grants, or pasturage for cattle.

No such consideration appears to have been offered in the Middle Colonies and reasons given in petitions for licenses are varied and amusing. Philip Todd of Philadelphia found it difficult to maintain his "chargeable family" by means of his trade which became less profitable while his family grew larger and more expensive. Another lived near Old St. Davids Church and was obliged to entertain many who came to worship. As he was but a poor man and "not able to bear yt burthen" he prayed for a "Lycence for Keeping a publick house and selling Beer, Sider etc." The most common argument advanced was the expense and inconvenience of entertaining travelers at all seasons, by those living on or near trails and highways.

Distinct class lines were drawn by public houses. Teamsters and drovers could rarely secure accommodations at an inn patronized by those traveling by stage. Both innkeepers and clientele held to this custom with great pertinacity.

"Drove stands" and "wagon stands" were names applied to taverns which supplied food and shelter for drovers and teamsters. Drove stands also provided pasturage for cattle. Many petitioning for license stated that they had a desirable site providing plenty of hay and corn and ample pasturage.

Travel was heavy at certain seasons and sufficient stabling was rarely available at such times. At night, horses were frequently tied to the wagons and protected in some instances by bear skins or other robes provided by the driver. Teamsters sometimes rested, not too comfortably, in their wagons or on blankets or narrow mattresses thrown on the floor of the barroom. Every barroom boasted at least one fireplace and feet of the sleepers invariably turned toward the welcome warmth.

Early diaries indicate that many teamsters carried their own food as well as provender for the horses. Drinks were procured at the tavern and it was from these that the proprietor made his profit.

Brawls were not infrequent occurrences. With what difficulty innkeepers were able to keep the law concerning drunkenness may be judged by the fact that strong pokers, sturdy whips, and scalding water were weapons often employed to quell rowdyism.

A ceiling price by a governing body is far from being a nursling of the present generation. In the *Pennsylvania Evening Post* of September 1778, innkeepers were forbidden by law to exceed certain prices. Prices fixed by the court of Quarter Sessions for Philadelphia County were two pounds for one quart of Madeira wine; spirits per gill, three shillings, nine pence; good beer per quart, one shilling, six pence; cider royal per quart, two shillings, six pence; breakfast of tea or coffee, three shillings, nine pence; dinner, five shillings; supper, three shillings, nine pence; lodging, one shilling, three pence; good hay for one horse per night, three shillings, nine pence; oats per quart, seven pence; whiskey per gill, one shilling, three pence. Innkeepers found guilty of exceeding these prices were prosecuted according to law, twenty shillings being the penalty for the first offense, forty shillings for the second and both five pounds and loss of license for a third.

That our forbears did not lack variety so far as drinks were concerned may be judged from the list of thirst assuagers available. These include porter, bitters, ale, sangaree, black strap, sling, kill devil, toddy, punch, whiskey, egg nog, grog, flip, cider, ciderkin, cider royal, cider brandy, whistle-belly vengeance, stone wall wines, mimbo and calibogus.

It was not uncommon to find inns surrounded by great apple orchards as a combination of rum and cider formed many intoxicating drinks such as cider royal and stone wall. For instance, ciderkin or water cider, was a very mild mixture of water, cider, molasses and ginger. Flip usually contained beer and rum to which eggs and sugar had been added. This combination was stirred with a heated iron known as a loggerhead. The heat caused the liquor to foam and gave it a burnt flavor that was much enjoyed by the imbibers. Sling, toddy and grog were mixtures of spirits and water. Both sling and toddy contained sugar but grog was unsweetened. Grog is said to have been named from "Old Grog," a nickname given to Admiral Vernon in allusion to his wearing a cloak of coarse material called "grogram" during stormy weather. He is credited with having been the original diluter of rum for sailors.

Bar rooms often contained signs that were varied but very much "to the point." A semi-circular sign displayed in the Bucks County Museum at Doylestown, Pennsylvania, bears a German inscription with the date 1773. Dr. Fackenthal gives the following translation:

> My friend, I entreat thee, excuse me from trusting
> Since for me and thee to borrow brings sorrow.
> Oft have I trust given, e'en up to this day,
> But when I want money, no one will pay.
> Therefore in future from trusting I'll cease

E'en though for this reason I may thee displease.
For it is much better at first to offend
Than at last to lose both money and friend.[2]

Another barroom sign represented a dead dog lying on his back with feet high in the air. Underneath, the inscription read: "Old Trust is dead, bad pay killed him."

Since the ability to read was by no means a universal accomplishment during pioneer days, symbolic sign boards marked the stopping places for the weary wayfarer, wagoner or sojourner. These hung on a horizontal bar supported by two uprights, swung from a nearby tree or from a rod attached to the inn itself. In some instances these signs were ornate and costly. A number had been painted by noted artists. Others had been carved in wood. Employed also for this purpose were stuffed animals' heads, elk and ox horns and buck antlers.

In the vicinity of Philadelphia were sign boards painted by such celebrated artists as West, Stuart, Hicks and Pratt. In the museum at Doylestown, hangs the original sign board of the Robert Morris Hotel in Morrisville. This is the work of the Quaker painter, Edward Hicks. On one side, he depicts Morris asking a friend for money to finance the Revolution; the portrait of Robert Morris with the inscription: "Thy Word is Thy Bond" graces the reverse side. Hicks also painted a sign of Penn's Treaty with the Indians for Bogart's Inn in Buckingham, Pennsylvania, as well as numerous signs for Newtown taverns, not far away.

The sign, "The Three Crowns," which swayed from a tavern on the King's Highway near Lancaster, Pennsylvania may be seen at Kintzer, Pennsylvania. It was painted by Benjamin West and bears the date 1771. The innkeeper in the Revolutionary period was suspected of being a Tory. He evidently experienced some difficulty as the sign was pierced by Continental bullets. Being a resourceful man, he had the three crowns obliterated on one side only and "Waterloo Tavern" substituted. Thereafter, when Britishers appeared the three crowns were displayed but at the approach of patriots the sign was quickly reversed!

The elaborate sign that marked the Federal Convention of 1787 Inn was the work of Mathew Pratt. "This sign was painted in a style that should have been given a place in a picture gallery. On one side Washington was seen seated under the panel bearing the arms of Pennsylvania. The dignified Judge Wilson occupied the chair and Franklin sat near. All heads were portraits." Unfortunately, some industrious soul gave this invaluable work of art a coat of brown paint on which he lettered, "Federal Convention, 1787."[3]

Names chosen for public houses were commonplace, absurd, humorous, and curious. Many were the names to which pioneers had been accustomed in England such as The Red Lion, The Black Horse, and The Anchor. Others honored great men such as Washington, The King of Prussia, and General Greene. Spring House stood before a fine spring of water. The Setting Hen had a "lean-to" added to both sides of the main structure and resembled a hen gathering her chicks beneath her wings. Buzzard's Roost and Pinch 'Em Slyly require no explanation. Location played a hand in nomenclature, so we find The Ferry Inn, The Lake House. Since distances between places were computed from tavern to tavern such names as The Three Mile House and Half Way House were not uncommon. Sporting subjects, building materials and colors as well as names of proprietors were also popular.

In writing on this subject, Dr. Sachse states: "The better class of inns or stage stands were usually named after popular heroes such as St. George and the Dragon, The Indian Queen, The King of Prussia, and General Paoli."[4] The names were sometimes changed owing to political vicissitudes. Thus, one of the most noted taverns, The Admiral Warren after the Revolution had the coat on the figure of the sign board changed from red to blue and henceforth it was The General Warren in honor of the hero of Bunker Hill.

The drove stands usually had signs pertinent to their class of patrons as The Bull's Head, and The Lamb, while tap houses were known by such names as The Jolly Irishman, The Fiddler and The Cat.

The following toast which enumerates the taverns in eastern Pennsylvania in the order of their occurrence on an old highway is still recited by octogenarians: "Here's to the Sorrel Horse that kicked The Unicorn that made The Eagle fly that scared The Lamb from under the Stage for drinking The Spring House dry."

One becomes envious when reading of the tempting viands placed before the hungry traveler who chanced to enter an old hostelry. These included beeksteak, cold tongue, mutton, venison, bacon, roast pork, curried oysters, cheese, roast duck and terrapin. Vegetables may not have been plentiful as few are mentioned in the early diaries and letters.

Barter was quite common in hostelries. A dinner in Virginia could be purchased for six pounds of tobacco in 1639. Later the price rose to twenty pounds for a master and fifteen pounds for a servant.

[2] B. F. Fackenthal, *General Lafayette's Journey from Brandywine to Bethlehem*, pp. 5-6.

[3] Mrs. A. M. Earle, *State Coach and Tavern Days*, p. 146.

[4] J. F. Sachse, *Wayside Inns*, pp. 9-10.

Payment in one case in Trenton in 1789 is recorded as four shillings for hay and oats and stabling for one horse overnight; dinner and a gill and a half of rum, three shillings; lodging, nine pence; one dinner and one grog, one shilling, nine pence. The custom of resorting to certain houses for a particular fare was quite as prevalent as it is at the present time, for as early as 1759 turtles were brought from the West Indies to East River, New York, which was renowned for its great turtle feasts. In Philadelphia, one inn was noted for its waffles and cat fish suppers.

"Dinner and club" is referred to frequently in New Jersey inn records. This was simply a "Dutch treat," the cost being divided equally by the friends assembled.

William Rice, the keeper of a public house on Boone's Lick Trail, Missouri, in the early nineteenth century, introduced the European plan at his establishment. Rice charged twenty-five cents for corn bread and "common fixins," thirty-seven and one-half cents for wheat bread and "chicken fixins," and sixty-two and one-half cents for both kinds of "fixins."

For a time in the eighteenth century, The Spread Eagle was the last station eastward and the first westward in traveling from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh. Stages which left the City of Brotherly Love at four and five o'clock in the morning stopped there for breakfast. The charge was thirty-one and one-fourth cents per meal for stage passengers and twenty-five cents for others. The difference in cost was explained as due to the fact that meals were prepared for stage passengers who often failed to arrive, thus causing waste in both time and food.

Dining tables were for all, for travelers and innkeepers dined together at one long table. Dishes were more frequently of pewter than of china until the beginning of the nineteenth century. Much of the cooking and serving was done by the family of the host or by indentured servants and Negro slaves.

An elderly lady states that her aunt, the wife of an innkeeper, near Norristown, Pennsylvania did all of the baking for their inn. As many as seventy-five pies were slid into a great outside oven. These ovens she describes as oval-shaped, seven or eight feet long, five feet wide and having a capacity for at least fifty pies plus a turkey or two as well as a pig and a few chickens.

First class inns usually possessed a sitting room or parlor which could be hired for one's exclusive use if necessary. This was heated by means of a fireplace and lighted with candles or small lamps. The early Puritans used lamps of Dutch origin, known as the betty lamp, which was made of brass, tin, or iron. Whale oil was burned, also animal fats, fish, and vegetable oils as kerosene could not be used with any degree of safety until after the middle of the nineteenth century. Lamps were cleaned and filled daily, placed on a mantel and carried to sleeping quarters by guests when ready to retire.

Sleeping accommodations varied. Some rooms were private, commodious, comfortable; others contained numerous beds. As many as twenty beds were placed in one long room and "shakedowns" could be found on the parlor floor to care for the overflow. This large number appears to have been the exception rather than the rule, but early diaries do attest that it was not uncommon to settle one's bones for the night only to be aroused by the advent of an utter stranger who took a lion's share of the bed and snored until morning.

Mattresses used by pioneers were filled with corn husks, feathers or with a species of dried grass called prairie feathers. Immaculate beds, as well as those in a questionable state, frequently greeted a weary traveler. Christopher Marshall's diary hints that he eyed his sleeping quarters with some trepidation, for on September 12, 1778, he slept in his great coat and stockings for fear of fleas and bugs. On July 15 of the same year, he writes of sleeping in a hostelry near Philadelphia with his coat on the bed clothes—surely not because of a cold wave in the City of Brotherly Love during the month of July!

The scarcity of linens was marked. Happy was the guest who was fortunate enough to arrive on the day that sheets were changed. Others record the use of tablecloths in lieu of sheets. Another who beseeched his landlord for a clean towel in the common washroom was informed that two hundred men had wiped on the same towel and that he was the first to complain!

Early innkeepers as a rule were men and women of unusual ability and character. Bradford, a printer, the son of the first printer of Pennsylvania, kept the Philadelphia Coffee House. Judge Huston built and operated the famous tavern at Arrow Rock, Missouri. Danforth of Cambridge, Massachusetts, was a representative to the General Court; others were military men or members of the state legislature. "Every innkeeper in Connecticut received his appointment only after being recommended by the selectmen, grand jurors and constables in his town."[5] His license, after being duly recommended, was granted at the discretion of the Court of Common Pleas. Massachusetts innkeepers were subjected to the same scrutiny. Truly this proprietor, postmaster and purveyor of news was easily the most popular, the best known and frequently the most able personage in the community.

The advent of the railroad, the airplane, and the

[5] Mrs. A. M. Earle, *Stage Coach and Tavern Days*, p. 66.

radio, together with growth of modern clubs and great business houses have shorn the pioneer inns of importance and prestige. But we must admit that as business and social centers and molders of public opinion, there was a period in our history when they stood at least second to the school and church as important factors in shaping the thought and ideas of American society.

Burma, Land of the Pagoda[1]

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INTRODUCTION

Burma, in many respects, is one of the most beautiful lands in the world, and its palaces and its temples are unexcelled. It is the youngest member of the British Empire, and prior to the outbreak of Chinese-Japanese hostilities in 1937, was little known.

The country occupies an area slightly less than the state of Texas, but its wide open spaces are fewer; its lanes for commerce are limited; and transportation facilities are almost totally lacking. Rugged mountains occupy much of Burma, and the people of this nation live primarily along the rivers and the seacoasts.

Burma lies between India on the west and China and Thailand on the east. It is almost impossible to describe the country in terms of a geometrical pattern, but despite its unusual shape, it is strategically important insofar as the United Nations are concerned.

While Burma is primarily known for its Burma Road, three great rivers, the Irrawaddy, the Sittang, and the Salween furnish the primary means of transportation to some 17,000,000 people who live in this sprawling country.

The nation enjoys a high degree of literacy, and Burmese women possess an amount of freedom common to the inhabitants of Europe. Under the control of the British from 1824 to 1937 but a semi-self governing unit of the British Empire since the latter date, the people of Burma have adopted many European customs.

Prior to 1941, Burma was, in most respects, self-sufficient. The staple food of the country was rice, and the rivers and waters near the seacoast abounded with fish. The principle diet of the Burmese consisted of a rice, vegetable, and fish diet.

EARLY HISTORY

The early history of Burma is obscure, and recorded history of the country dates from about the time of William the Conqueror. In ancient times, tribes migrated from Tibet and western China searching for a better and unpopulated land. The Portuguese were probably the first Europeans to see Burma. In later years a rivalry existed betwen England and France for trade and other rights within the country. While the Portuguese and then the British and the French established trading posts in Burma, the country remained free under its native kings until well into the nineteenth century. The first outbreaks between the British and the Burmese occurred in 1824 when the British, who had occupied India, refused to meet certain demands of the native kings of Burma and open warfare resulted.

British outposts along the Bengal-Burma frontier were attacked when authorities of the Commonwealth refused to accede to the Burmese demands for the payment of tolls on all boats using the Naaf estuary. Initial Burmese successes were reversed when the British landed in force near Rangoon in May 1824, and the subsequent victories of the British armies brought about the treaty of Yandabo on February 24, 1826.

The first war between Great Britain and Burma, unpopular in England, proved costly in men and material. Three-eights of the British troops failed to return from the war and the total cost exceeded $25,000,000.

From 1826 to 1850 British-Burmese relations remained peaceful. By 1851 they began to deteriorate. By 1852 the two nations were at war. Repeated insults to Great Britain, its flag, its ships, and sailors brought about hostilities in March 1852. The second Burmese-British war began when an English boat sailing up the Rangoon River under a flag of truce was fired upon. While India unanimously indorsed the war, the English press did not favor it; and the East India Company furnished the majority of troops.

Complete victory resulted in disorganization in Burma and Pegu, the last maritime province of the country, was annexed in December 1852. At the conclusion of the war, the Burmese king, Ava, was dethroned and was succeeded by Mindon who reigned until 1878. His death on October 1, 1878,

[1] This is the third of a series of articles on the countries of Asia by Mr. Craf who is now teaching at the Quartermaster School, Camp Lee, Virginia.

constituted a distinct blow to British authority in the Far East. His successor, Theebaw, who was his youngest son, initiated a series of events which led to the third British-Burmese war in 1885.

Under Theebaw, members of the royal family were purged. His government also began imposing heavy taxes upon British firms in Burma and particularly the Bombay-Burma Trading Corporation which exported teakwood from the country. Event after event resulted in an ultimatum to Burma. An unfavorable reply was received, and by November 28, 1885, the British had captured King Theebaw. Exiled to India, the king died in 1916 in that country; and upon his death the queen, Supaya-lat, returned to Rangoon to live. There she died in 1925.

The pacification of Burma was not accomplished by the capture and exile of the king. Several years and a British army of 35,000 troops were required to accomplish the task. Upper Burma proved particularly troublesome, but by 1890 with the aid of native military constabulary, the country was unified and placed under the control of a provincial government, under which it operated until 1937.

From 1937 to 1942, Burma separated from India, made great advances in self-government. The Government of Burma Act in 1935 gave the country almost complete representative and responsible government with a Senate of thirty-six members and a House of Representatives with 132 members. The Burma government was directed by a cabinet of ministers, selected by the elected members of the legislature and responsible to them.

Perhaps the person charged with a major portion of the responsibility under the new Act was the governor. First to preside in Burma as governor was Sir Archibald Douglas Cochrane, a former member of the British Parliament and an officer in the Royal Navy. Appointed by the king of England, Sir Cochrane served for five years, the customary term, and was succeeded by Sir Reginald Hugh Dorman-Smith in 1941. Burma's progress as a semi-self governing unit progressed rapidly and dominion status, full self-government, was within reach when the Japanese attacked and conquered the country in 1942.

As a semi-self governing unit, Burma enjoyed full fiscal autonomy and had the right to impose taxes. When separated from India, the new nation assumed a portion of India's national debt, most of which represented capital investment in the Burma railways.

Topography and Climate

Burma occupies a land area of 262,732 square miles and from the extreme north to the extreme south measures 1,200 miles. The country consists of parallel rivers valleys, running north to south, separated by ranges of mountains. The coastline is rocky and from Victoria Point to above Akyab is marked with serrations which from the air remind one of the teeth of a saw.

The mountains of the country taper off as they approach the south. In the north, many peaks are more than several thousand feet above sea level, and the nature of the terrain was a factor which worked to the disadvantage of the British when fighting the Japanese in 1942 for the mountain ranges hampered east-west communications.

Three great rivers, the Salween, the Irrawaddy, and the Sittang form the main avenues of transport within the country. Most of Burma's population live in the valleys of these rivers and upon the fertile deltas.

Of the three, the Irrawaddy is the most important. While not the longest river in Burma, it is navigable for nine hundred miles and is the chief highway of the nation. It flows through the most fertile farming land of the country.

In peaceful years the Irrawaddy Flotilla Company of Rangoon operates a fleet of vessels on which it is possible to sail far up the river. The Irrawaddy is characterized by three defiles; the first north of Mandalay, the second between Shwegn and Bhams, and the third just below Myitkyina, the town which has recently been frequently mentioned in the newspapers as the site of the success of allied arms in Burma.

These defiles almost bar the river from flowing through its natural course and the waters escape from their rocky prison only by roaring through gorges and gargantuan masses of rocks.

The Salween River forms for a considerable distance the boundary between Thailand and Burma. Rising from the region east of Tibet the Salween plunges into the Gulf of Martabau. Unlike the Irrawaddy, no centers of population are found along the Salween except Moulmein and navigation is difficult on its waters.

The Sittang River which rises east of the Yamethin district of Burma at about 20° north latitude empties into the Gulf of Martabau as does the Salween. The Sittang cannot be safely used by vessels because of tidal conditions at the mouth of the river.

Burma lies within the tropical region and is subject to the wet and dry seasons encountered in the tropics. Tropical diseases are present in the country although the British Health Service has done valiant work in stamping out malaria, typhus, and cholera.

The monsoon season begins in May of each year in Burma and continues well into October. In some areas, rainfall averages 200 inches, and during this

period travel and outdoor work are necessarily curtailed.

Agriculture

Burma is primarily an agricultural country, and approximately seven out of every ten of the inhabitants earn their livelihood through farming. The stable crop of the country is rice; and in lower Burma, it is cultivated everywhere. Production is not intensive, for crop rotation is difficult and primitive farming methods are still used. Very little modern machinery is used in cultivating or harvesting agricultural crops, and buffaloes and bullocks are used instead of horses. These animals perform their duties admirably and they are especially useful in a country which has heavy rains and a tropical climate.

Rice cultivation in Lower Burma is carried out on large farms, generally the property of absentee landlords. This condition is distinctly different from the situation in the northern part of the country where the average holding of land tilled by the owners, is from five to six acres.

Before the outbreak of World War II, Burma's normal rice export amounted to three and one-half million tons. Rangoon, with its excellent dock and shipping facilities, was the point of export for this crop.

Of the tillable land in this sprawling country, there are about 12,500,000 acres cultivated with rice. During normal years, India is the great importer of this Burmese product.

In Middle Burma around Mandalay, sesamum, cotton, millet, and beans of various kinds are extensively grown. In Upper Burma a variety of crops are produced; tea, coffee, oranges, and sugar cane are among the products found in this section.

Because the people of Burma do not approve of killing animals, there is no extensive cattle industry in the country. Dairying, however, is a major enterprise among the centers of population such as Rangoon, Mandalay, and Moulmein. British authorities in Burma have not indicated the same interest in the agricultural, cattle, and dairy industries in Burma as in India; but in recent years improvements have nevertheless been made. Burma has a Food and Drug Act but it has been estimated that its strict enforcement would deprive 50 per cent of the population of milk.

During recent years, the Director of Agriculture has made extensive experiments in various aspects of the agricultural economy of the country, and his investigations have increased the quality and quantity of tillable land. The British government has also taken steps to improve irrigation conditions, particularly among the rice paddies of lower Burma. Perhaps the greatest problem facing Burmese agriculturists today is the fact that more than 50 per cent of the agricultural lands are controlled by absentee owners. Cooperative societies and land banks have made their appearance in Burma following its separation from India and were making progress when the Japanese seized control of the country in 1942.

Industry

Burma's two major industries center about oil and teakwood. Teakwood produced in Burma is the finest found in the world. Dark brown in color this product of nature has the extremely valuable quality of resisting destructive agents by means of its own secretions. Before the country was overrun by the Japanese, Burma exported a half million loads of this wood each year to all parts of the world.

During 1940 Burma produced 280,000,000 gallons of oil with the Burma Oil Company, the largest single employer of labor in Burma, drilling most of it. Industrialists from England, India, and other countries have been largely responsible for the development of the petroleum industry. In early 1942 the British, retreating from Burma, applied the scorched earth policy to the oil industry to prevent the Japanese from using this product.

In terms of industrialization, Burma has made relatively little progress when compared with the countries of the old and the new world. Under the Factory Act, 1,007 factories have been registered; about one-seventh of these are controlled by European capital, and they employ approximately one-half the industrial workers of the country. Rice mills employ the largest number of people, for this staple crop must be prepared for export.

Rubber is grown in varying quantities in the Sittang Valley as far south as Victoria Point. The rubber produced in this region is of high quality and can compete favorably in the markets of the world with the rubber grown in South America and the Netherlands East Indies.

A wide variety of mineral products in varying commercial quantities are found within the country. Silver, lead, tungsten, copper, and precious stones are found. Before World War I, Burma was the largest producer of tungsten in the world, and many of the large mines of the country were first developed under modern engineering methods introduced by Mr. Herbert Hoover who visited there in 1903.

From within Burma, a variety of precious minerals are mined. Rubies have long been extracted from the rocks of this country and perhaps the most famous gem found is the so-called "peace-ruby" discovered on November 11, 1918, the day the armistice ending World War I was signed. This gem weighed forty-two carats and sold for $3,200 per carat.

Amber and jade are found in considerable quantity, but more extensive and more valuable deposits are found in the neighboring country of China. The rich emerald jade from Mogaung is the most highly prized of all, and it is superior to the black, yellow, red, violet, and other colors of jade.

Rangoon, the capital of Burma, is the center of industry and commercial trade. Prior to the outbreak of World War II, it was through this great port that lease-lend supplies flowed to China by way of the Burma Road. The great docks of this city before partial destruction by the Japanese were able to accommodate modern ocean vessels. Rangoon is the largest city of Burma and has a population of about 500,000. Within this and other cities of Burma, the standard of living is higher than in most of the other Oriental countries. The people of this city enjoy a high percentage of literacy and have adopted many of the modern European facilities while retaining much which was originally native to the country. In Rangoon are found the finest pagodas in the world. These temples of religion have no equal and have been largely spared during the war that has raged in the Far East.

The Burma Road

Prior to April 1942, when the Japanese conquered Burma, the Burma Road which ran from Lashio to Chungking was China's jugular vein. About 726 miles in length and in widths varying from nine to twenty feet, this road was literally carved out of the side of mountains. Construction began in the late summer of 1937, and sixteen months later work had been completed on the road.

Had one been traveling by air during the late fall of 1937 or during 1938, he would have witnessed thousands of Chinese toiling unceasingly with primitive tools on mountains and in gorges.

These Chinese laborers answered the call of their leaders to work both in China and in Burma on this great project. Anticipating the Japanese occupation and blockade of the Chinese coast, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek foresaw the need of constructing facilities to aid the flow of supplies to China via Rangoon, Lashio, and Chungking.

By November, 1938, British steamships and vessels of other nations were docking at Rangoon to unload arms, munitions, planes, trucks, gasoline, and oil destined for Chinese forces, then in the second year of their struggle with Japan.

Although Burma was not an active participant in the Asiatic war at this time, some Burmese foresaw the implications if war materials were hauled to China over this road. The majority of business men in Burma, however, approved its construction, for they felt it would improve trade and commerce within the country.

When the road was completed, it contained more than 2,000 culverts and almost 300 bridges, all of which were constructed without the modern engineering facilities which are used in the western hemisphere. During 1939 and the spring of 1940, supplies and equipment moved over this road to the Chinese forces and aided in no small measure in their slowing the Japanese drive into the Chinese interior.

The fall of France in 1940 carried with it grave implications for China and the Burma Road. Britain, under pressure from Tokyo, closed the Burma Road in May 1940, and it was not reopened until October of the same year. Meanwhile the French authorities in Indo-China, orphaned by the fall of the mother country, were forced to close the railroad over which China had drawn more than 40,000 tons of supplies a month.

These two blows placed the national government at Chungking in a grave position; but Great Britain, determined to remain in the war even if without support from other allied powers, decided once again to come to China's aid. Reopening the Burma Road, supplies once again began to move into Chungking from Rangoon at the rate of four thousand tons a month. By midsummer 1941, an American group of efficiency experts assumed control of the trucking facilities from Lashio, and there was a distinct improvement from that time until May 1942 in the tonnage carried. Since the Japanese break-through into Burma and their seizure of this vital supply route, the Chinese have striven to regain it.

Now under construction is an alternate supply route, known as the Ledo Road, which will link India with the old Burma Road at Lungling. As construction has not yet been completed, and as the northern section of Burma has not yet been made secure from Japanese raiding parties, China continues to be supplied by air from India.

Current Orientation

Burma occupies a strategic position insofar as the Asiatic theater of war is concerned. While the Japanese continue to occupy and control the Chinese coastal cities and areas, Burma is the country through which the Chinese must be supplied. When the Japanese declared war on Great Britain and the United States in December 1941, Burma became, among other countries, the target of Japanese bombs and armies.

On Christmas Day 1941, Burma and its capital, Rangoon, entered the Far Eastern war with a suddenness that startled the war lords of Japan.

A Japanese aerial armada headed for Rangoon, principal seaport of Burma and railhead for the

Burma Road, was attacked by a group of American fighter planes whose pilots were to write aviation history. The Japanese attacking force, which consisted of seventy-eight bombers and fourteen fighters, were set upon by eighteen American Flying Tigers who, in the short space of a few minutes, sent nineteen Nipponese planes crashing to earth. Nine other Japanese planes failed to return home, and it was the first time in history that Japanese forces had suffered a serious setback. This group of Flying Tigers, recruited from the Army and Navy ranks of the United States and headed by the then Colonel Claire L. Chennault, were instrumental in providing primary support for Burma for more than two months.

While the Flying Tigers were writing aerial history over China and Burma, Lieutenant General Joseph W. Stilwell was being slowly forced back in Burma, and the fording of the Salween River sealed the fate of the Chinese, British, and American forces in Burma early in 1942. Stilwell, with a small group of aides, finally reached India and in midsummer 1942 began to lay plans for the reconquest of Burma. Although his primary objective has not yet been accomplished, the northern part of Burma including Myitkyina has been reconquered, and a junction with Chinese forces has now made possible a new land link between India and China. During the thirty months following Stilwell's retreat into India, three individuals have been largely responsible for the success of allied arms in this area.

Brigadier General Frank Merrill, the late Major General Charles Wingate of the British army, and Colonel Phil Cochrane of the United States Army Air Forces and of comic strip fame have written military history in the jungles and mountains of Burma.

During the early part of 1943, Wingate and his "Chindits" roamed Burma at will, beating the Japanese at their own game of cutting communications, destroying supply dumps, and raiding villages. By March 1944, Stilwell was ready to begin a major push into Burma; and, aided by Merrill's Marauders, Myitkyina was retaken. The Japanese have since withdrawn into central Burma where they are attempting to hold against the ever-increasing pressure of British, Indian, Chinese, and American forces.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

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JAY, POLLOCK AND THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER[1]

While Patrick Henry and John Jay were assuring Spanish officials in 1777 and 1778 that Americans had no interest in the English-held Floridas, the westerner, Oliver Pollock, was advocating American expansion there and control of the Mississippi. He was well versed with American interests in the cis-Mississippi West both as trader and friend of men such as Cerré, Vigo, Murray, Rumsey, Clark, Todd, Bosseron and General Hand.

Pollock urged a committee of Congress in 1778 to establish military posts at Natchez and Manchac, near New Orleans, and to occupy Pensacola. He urged upon George Rogers Clark the necessity of capturing West Florida before Spain should declare war on England. Later, as policy changed, Colonel David Rogers, special agent of Governor Henry of Virginia to Governor Bernardo de Galvez of Louisiana, repeated this request to Patrick Henry, who then urged Washington to influence Congress. In 1779 Pollock repeated his request asking Congress to acquire West Florida as its possession would afford control of New Orleans and the free navigation of the Mississippi.

Congress took no action because of diplomatic reasons involving the winning of Spanish aid against England. Mirales, a merchant from Havana, having conferred with Jay and other members of Congress in 1778, informed Galvez that the Americans had pretensions on West Florida and the navigation of the Mississippi. Gerard, the French minister, conferred frequently with Jay endeavoring to persuade him to yield claims to both in return for a Spanish treaty. Jay was agreeable, providing that Spain would give military and financial aid and a free port on the Mississippi. On the other hand, Gouverneur Morris, who wished to confine American settlements to the Ohio, was willing to sacrifice navigation rights below it on the Mississippi.

Congress in 1779, drafting a treaty of alliance with Spain, declared that if Spain secured the Floridas from Britain, the United States would guarantee Spanish possession, provided that the United States should enjoy free use of the Mississippi into and from the sea.

[1] James A. James, "Oliver Pollock and the Free Navigation of the Mississippi River," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XIX (December, 1932), 331-347.

Jay, President of Congress, was sent by it in January, 1780, on a mission to Spain to secure a port below latitude 31° and also a loan of $5,000,000. Jay spent two fruitless years there, often shunned by the Spanish Court and society, and ignored through the usual diplomatic procrastinations. During this time Jay told Gardoqui, then but a private merchant, that free access to the Mississippi was essential for the inhabitants of the Ohio who would not see any justice in being denied an outlet at New Orleans. Gardoqui replied that "aids" would be forthcoming on the surrender of our pretensions. Count Blanca repeatedly told Jay that Spain would not surrender exclusive rights to navigate the Mississippi.

In March, 1780, Spain captured Natchez. Governor Galvez wrote to Pollock thanking him for his influence in securing its capitulation. Pollock had written friends there not to support the British, as Spain had recognized American independence and therefore they should aid the common cause. In September, 1779, Captain Pickles in the service of the United States, by capturing the British armed sloop, the *West Florida,* secured control of Lake Pontchartrain. The inhabitants of that district, all of British stock, capitulated to him declaring that they belonged to the United States. In January, 1780, Pollock wrote to Congress urging it to keep territory previously acquired in West Florida by Captain Willing and that acquired by Captain Pickles at Lake Pontchartrain. A committee of Congress declared that the aid given to Governor Galvez by Captain Pickles strengthened the American claims to free navigation of, and a port on, the Mississippi. This information was sent to Jay along with instructions not to yield on American rights to use the river freely.

In February, 1781, Congress, alarmed at the British successes in Virginia and at Charleston, instructed Jay to yield on the demand for a free port and navigation below latitude 31° as an inducement for a Spanish alliance. Huntington, new President of Congress, and other members, urged on by the new French minister, Comte de Luzerne, had long been favorable to this course. Jay was to press for a $5,000,000 loan in return for the cession of our claims. Jay replied that such a course made war with Spain unavoidable in the future. However, pursuant to his instructions, he incorporated this cession in a proposed draft of the treaty which he submitted to Spain on September 22, 1781.

On October 15, 1781, Pollock again wrote Congress of the pressing need of the West for free navigation, suggesting that we get land on the late English side of the river from Manchac upwards, or Houmas, north of New Orleans, as a port. Jay informed Congress on April 28, 1782 that Spain would make no concessions. Congress then told Jay to cease his overtures and not to accept any Spanish propositions until Congress had approved of them. When Jay left for Paris in the spring of 1782 in response to Franklin's request for aid in negotiating the treaty with Britain, he left his private secretary, William Carmichael to attend to any further negotiations.

Thus Pollock's championship of western interests was adequately supported by Jay and Congress and stronger action, such as a military aid, was withheld owing to the complications of diplomacy. Final action, as Jefferson said later, would await the outbreak of new European war when the United States would be in a stronger position to take effective action.

Closing New Orleans to the Americans[2]

Some years ago Professor Channing proved that New Orleans was closed to American commerce by order of the Spanish king. Other documents now utilized by Professor E. Wilson Lyon eliminate Napoleon as an instigator of this order. The king acted from reports of illegal American activities at New Orleans.

On July 13, 1801, the intendant at New Orleans stated that the Americans were smuggling and avoiding the customary duties. The right of deposit had been granted for three years in 1795 and had not been renewed. At the same time the Spanish Consul General at Philadelphia requested that he be empowered to state on passports to New Orleans that though the privilege was concluded, license to go there was granted. This would show that trade at New Orleans was a privilege and not an obligation. The consul complained of the lack of consideration shown Spanish sailors in American ports. As a result of these complaints the king announced on July 14, 1802 the discontinuance of the right of deposit at New Orleans and instead of allocating an alternative place, as the Pinckney Treaty had provided, violated the treaty in this respect. The French Foreign Office only learned of the order through its minister at Washington in a letter dated November 24, 1802.

A translation of one of the documents found by Lyon, a report on the whole matter summarized for the king on February 13, 1803, follows:[3]

> Senor:
>
> The American Chargé d'Affaires protests under the date of the third against the decree issued by the Provisional Governor of Louisiana

[2] E. Wilson Lyon, "The Closing of the Port of New Orleans," *American Historical Review,* XXXVII (January, 1932), 280-286.

[3] Reference to the Spanish Archives, *Ibid.,* p. 284. This document was translated by Hector La Guardia, Spanish Department, Bryant High School, New York City.

which proscribes the privilege enjoyed by Americans for the storage of merchandise at the port of New Orleans, basing his protest on the fact that the decree violates Article 22 of the Treaty, signed in 1795. The American Chargé requests, in the name of the President of the United States, that the decree in question be repealed, since otherwise the Spanish Government might become responsible for the huge damages which the continuance of the decree will cause American citizens. The suggestion is made that either the decree be repealed or else a suitable place along the Mississippi be established for the storage of transit merchandise, all in accordance with the said Article 22 of the Treaty of 1795; also, it is requested that Your Majesty's Minister to the United States be authorized to state that the trade of American citizens is to be re-established under the stipulations of the Treaty of 1795.

In another note dated the fourth reference is made to the inconveniences to which Americans are subjected by Spanish officials in the Indies, and the request is made that Your Majesty's Minister be authorized to correct the malicious conduct of Spanish officials towards nationals of the United States, since otherwise the passions and the self-seeking of a score or so of individuals might jeopardize the goodwill now existing between the two countries.

Article 22 of the Treaty of 1795 reads as follows: "The High Contracting Parties hope that the present Treaty will bring about better and closer friendly relations, and that it will be conducive to greater prosperity and well-being, and in this hope they will make reciprocal concessions redounding to the advantage of the two countries.

"It is understood that in consequence of the stipulations sets forth in Article 4, His Royal Majesty, will, for a period of three years, permit nationals of the United States to store merchandise at New Orleans and to reship it from there without expense other than a fair storage charge. His Majesty, moreover, offers to extend the above period if it should be found that it is not prejudicial to Spanish interests, and in the event that the extension should prove impracticable to grant similar privileges somewhere else along the Mississippi."

Don Pedro de Cevallos requested of Don Miguel Cayetano Soler, under date of May 2, 1802, in answering the latter's report to which was attached a letter from Lopez Angulo, Governor of Louisiana, dealing with this matter of storage of American merchandise at New Orleans, an opinion as to the storage rights claimed by the Americans (with the idea of trading without incurring any fees), and also as to the abuses originating therefrom, and the damages caused to the Royal Treasury, his understanding being that the right of storage referred to, was limited by the Treaty, to the three years immediately ensuing, and that no extension of this period was on records in the files of this Ministry.

Under date of July second Soler advised Cevallos as to the various reports submitted by Governor Lopez Angulo, and from them it was evident that said storage rights could not but be prejudicial to the interests of His Majesty, since many products of Louisiana were made to appear as products of the United States with consequent damage to His Majesty's interests. To avoid this it seemed advisable to approve the regulations put into effect by Morales prohibiting the entry of any and all goods not covered in his regulations, excluding only coined silver and gold. Also, it seemed advisable to allow no direct trade with Natchez or the other places ceded under the delimitation arrangements, exactly as such trade is prohibited with the whole of the territory of the United States of America and other foreign powers.

In view of these reports Soler was informed under date of July eleventh that Your Majesty did not approve the action of the Governors of Louisiana which allowed the storage of American goods in New Orleans after the expiration of the period prescribed by the said Treaty; also, lest the reprehensible tolerance of the Governors might be interpreted by the Americans as an extension of the privilege mentioned in the Article in question, it was proper for the Governor of Louisiana to deny the entry and storage of American goods in New Orleans, basing his contention, however, not on Your Majesty's orders, but rather on the text of the Treaty, which makes it impossible for him to allow such entry and storage, without explicit orders from Your Majesty.

It is no doubt due to this Royal order issued through the Treasury Department that the Provisional Governor has issued the decree which has given rise to the protests set forth in the Notes from the Government of the United States dated February third and fourth.

Your Majesty in view of the foregoing will arrive at a decision concerning the Royal pleasure.

(Notation in different handwriting:)

Private for Senor Soler: The Governor of

Louisiana is to be instructed to allow the Americans to continue the storage privileges at New Orleans, without however, publicly repealing the decree, and without making it known that he is acting under Royal Orders. The American minister may be informed of the Instructions [sic] issued to the Governor at New Orleans, with the assurance for his government that the King, ever just in his decisions, loyal in the observance of treaties and desirous of maintaining the friendship of the United States, would never permit the impairment of the rights granted to the United States by the treaties.

Tell Yrujo that he convey this information to the representative of the United States.

Done the 13th of February 1803 according to the daca.

Use of a Self-Evaluative Test in Individualized History Study

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Many, perhaps most, history tests are simply checks designed to test the amount of information the pupils or students have learned (frequently merely memorized) during a particular period of time. The primary purpose in the minds of most teachers in giving tests has been to determine the relative status of pupils so that a mark based on competitive standing may be given. In the mind of the learner the primary purposes have simply been: (1) to pass the course, and (2) to wangle as good a mark as can be obtained without too much effort. So true is this, that many teachers and their students sometimes have difficulty in conceiving of tests where teacher and learner purposes are different from those already indicated. This article tries to give a picture of other purposes in history testing which are based on psychologically sound principles of learning.

Methods of Teaching and Learning Employed in Class

Before the writer gives the test with illustrative answers made to various questions, a very brief description will be given of the methods of teaching and learning emphasized in a history class in which the test was employed.

(1) The study of history was approached by each student as *the getting and using of some of those written records which gave promise of helping him to recognize, meet, and solve more effectively the present and prospective problems which he as an individual was now facing or would likely face.* This, of course, meant that an attempt was made to individualize the instruction and study of the learners in the group. For instance, one student who expected to become a teacher attempted, with the help of the instructor and other resources, to set up the types of problems which he would likely face. Then he worked to get reasonable solutions to these problems, recognizing that one solution might work best in one place and another might be more desirable in a different situation. Another student planning to be a social or welfare worker did the same type of thing for his field. In other words each student worked on problems which he expected later to meet. Methods of selecting problems wisely have been described elsewhere.[2]

(2) Each student was guided in learning how *to select more wisely and use more effectively materials which promised to give help on the problems he had set up.* No text as such was used in the course. Any and every type of printed resource (as well as many other resources such as interviews, observations, and correspondence) was considered suitable grist for his attentions if it promised to give help on the problems he recognized or was led to recognize as important. These materials included magazine articles, newspaper editorials, and news items, books, pamphlets, report cards, etc., all of which were considered functional history materials if they gave the desired help.

(3) *Reading history merely for the sake of getting historical information was avoided.* Rather, the purposeful study of problems gave the student direction in the selection of materials and in the guidance needed in deciding the type of ideas he would try to get from them.

[1] Lieutenant Simpson is on a leave of absence and is serving in the United States Army at Fort Benning, Georgia. (Ed.)

[2] Ray H. Simpson, "Students Help Set Up Criteria to Aid in Deciding What to Study," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXVI (November, 1942), 192-199.

(4) *In all of the work an endeavor was made to teach the learner to be better able to meet his own problems and to learn how to teach himself.* Teacher dictatorship in assignment making, selection of materials, use of materials, purchase of materials, testing and evaluation, was guarded against, for it was recognized that this would never lead to independence of thinking and study on the part of the learner.

(5) *The records which the student kept of his own educational activities and the skills he developed in keeping them were looked upon as an important phase of his history study.* Stress was placed on the fact that the student was actually gaining a better insight into the meaning and uses of history through writing some of it, i.e., his own educational history.

Students Evaluate Some Phases of Their Work

As has already been pointed out the individualized type of instruction makes it necessary and desirable to build up within the learner the ability to evaluate continuously his own work. It was emphasized that evaluating and testing should be primarily a checkup on past thinking and activities so that we might redirect our future activities into more profitable channels. With this in mind a test whose origin has already been described elsewhere[8] was answered outside of class by each of the students over a period of three weeks starting about the middle of the semester. The test questions and illustrative answers are given primarily to show how testing and test questions may be given to focus attention upon learning and learning improvement and so wean the learner (and the teacher) away from the idea that tests should be used almost exclusively to determine marks and credits.

I. Questions relating to goals toward which to work and problems upon which to work:

1. *Am I improving in the ability to pick out problems of importance for me to study? Evidence?*

"When I first began work on my problem, which deals with the teaching of delinquent and mentally retarded children, I had no clear concept of what to look for in the library or what phases of my problem to attack. I was inclined to look at random and write down almost anything I found. However, after a week or so I found that I was not getting anywhere and that I had only a hazy conception of the goal I was seeking. My material seemed lifeless to me and somehow it had no organization. From suggestions received in class and from some careful thinking on what I wanted to do with my problem I gradually 'caught on' and began organizing my paper and my work in terms of problems. I had to go back over the work I had done and I found that by placing my information under specific problems, my work took on a new aspect for me. I began to visualize myself in an actual teaching situation and I asked myself what problems would confront me. By this use of imagination I saw and felt new problems all the time. I have started working on these problems which are real to me and from them have discovered the goal I would like to work for and through their solution I am reaching it.

"I think that my last problem I picked out to study was the most important problem that I could have chosen. It was made up of one large problem which can be broken down into small ones. This enables me to get the practice of solving the many smaller problems. The best evidence of the importance of the problem to me is that it meets all of the criteria that we set up as a basis for selecting a problem. I have already taken advantage of some of my study by selecting and buying a lot in accord with the results of my study. This problem study will also help my industrial arts needs for a general knowledge of carpentry and building."

2. *Are the results I am getting in my study likely to be of value to me? If so, when? How?*

"I have tentatively decided upon my aims and objectives in teaching. This will certainly be of value to me since it will help to decide how I teach. It will also help determine what I teach my pupils. For one thing, for instance, I have decided that I am not going to teach to cram factual knowledge down my pupils, but rather to teach them to think for themselves and to help them acquire abilities necessary for facing life's problems.

"I have learned something of the history of my profession. This is valuable to me since I really should know a little of the background of what I am teaching. I can also use my information in trying to make various phases of physical education interesting to my pupils.

"I have made a complete study of the relationship of physical education and the core curriculum. This is of value to me because I now realize what I as a teacher of physical education can contribute to such a curriculum should this ever become necessary.

"The main reason why my results are of value to me is that I probably will not have another opportunity to study things I really need with the help of the teacher. My other subjects from now on will be outlined for me and I will have no choice as to what I will study.

"I am planning to keep my folder for reference when I do my practice teaching and when I begin

[8] Ray H. Simpson, "Students' Attempt Self-Evaluation of Work in Educational Psychology," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXIII (March, 1942), 225-231.

my actual teaching. In some parts of my work I have found tests that teachers may give to themselves to evaluate their own teaching procedures. I think they are excellent and want to have them on hand to test myself to see if I really am doing the best I could do.

"I want to use some of the ideas that have been used in other communities for improvement for the communities in which I teach. This work has proved of immediate value to me also. I am interested in knowing what is being done in other communities. I am interested in what other people in my field of work are doing as well as the improvements in the whole field of education."

3. *Have I been working on something that represents a real need to me? Evidence?*

"I think so. I want to know the characteristics of a democratic school and how to get cooperation among the pupils. I want to know how to develop them in every way possible so as to make them have a feeling of freedom and belonging. I want my classroom to be so democratic as to instill in the pupils a feeling of love for cooperative recognition of the rights of others, and a desire to exercise their own abilities. I want to make democracy foremost in their minds and actions and by study of the problem of democracy in the school I am preparing myself for this.

"This topic and any other that I am working on has a twofold meaning, first, for a solution of the problem itself; second, for a good system of keeping records. I have developed from this work a set of notes that will be of great assistance when I start teaching. It will also give me a chance to pass on to other learners a system by which they too can tackle a problem which is troubling them or others."

4. *Do I have specific goals and am I making progress toward them? Describe.*

"My major goal has been to try to learn the many different methods one can use in the teaching of the mentally retarded and/or delinquent child. Also, I have placed as a goal the desire to learn to organize my work and materials better, to see problems more clearly, and to devise better methods for handling general problems which might come up in the school room. I feel that I have made definite progress toward these goals for in my study I am gathering much material on methods and am learning the use of it. My work seems to be better organized than it formerly was and has a more connected central idea. From class discussions I have learned a great deal about general problems of all types and have gotten many specific suggestions which have helped me in my study.

"My ultimate goal is to make myself a better teacher. I have had lesser goals but they all led up to my final purpose. I have studied problems that I believe have aided me in my purpose. I have learned other things through class discussions such as: how to keep good records, factors in grading, taking care of individual differences, how to select a problem, desirable characteristics of a teacher, approaches to solving the problem of cheating. I have also improved in using the library and other resources."

II. Work with others:

5. *Am I progressing in the matter of my contributions to class discussions? Evidence?*

"I have found that I seem to want to discuss my side of problems in class more than I did earlier in the course. Often I like to give some actual classroom experiences that I have had for the benefit of those who are not doing their teaching now.

"When I first came into this class I felt that I knew so little of the problems of education as I had had only one course in education previously. I felt that my idea about the subject would probably be so 'far fetched' that it would be disregarded. Then, I began gradually, to volunteer information to find that my opinion was respected just as much as anyone's opinion. I feel that I have asked some questions that stimulated thought in the group which seems a desirable thing."

6. *Do I indirectly help myself by helping others? If so, indicate in what ways I have helped others.*

"I have referred other students to references and materials which they have found helpful, and might otherwise have missed.

"I believe anyone can gain by helping others for in doing so he makes obstacles clear in his own mind. If a person can explain something that is useful and helpful to others it points out to him the important points of his topic. I have discussed controversial issues with others and thus seen opposing sides more clearly. Also, by criticizing other pupils' folders and giving them suggestions for improving their work and records, I have helped myself."

7. *Have I been sufficiently willing to accept suggestions for improving my work? If so, give some specific instances.*

"I have been willing to accept suggestions and try them out and then see for myself whether they are desirable for my work. For instance, it was suggested in class that we organize our work under specific problems. I went back over my material and did this and found it to be the most helpful suggestion I have had. I also followed a good many of the useful suggestions for keeping personal records and have improved in this ability.

"I feel that I have been very willing to accept suggestions for improving my work. Evidence of this is that I have found a very satisfactory method of arranging my research work, only after I had tried my own way together with other methods suggested by the instructor and by other members of the class. Looking over my progress reports, I see that I have changed my method of writing several times. The first way that I made these reports was that of giving in my own words the viewpoints and material of several different authors. I made no criticisms of their works and did not give any of my own thoughts on the subject.

"The next step forward that I took was the instructor's suggestion that I give more of my own ideas to guard against my work becoming 'busy work.' I saw where the instructor was right, and in my next week's work, I inserted my own ideas and gave instances when I thought the author was not altogether right, or where his plans would not fit in with the present program of school work. I think this was a good suggestion because it made me begin to really ask myself, 'What is the answer to my question?'

"Then I began asking myself different questions that would lead finally to the answer to my first main question. These I wrote at the heading of the report and then I attempted to see what answers authors give for these simpler questions.

"Next, I made a general outline for each week's work so that any one could pick up my folder (record) and see exactly what I had done, and what I planned to do. The next conscious improvement that I made was that I summarized what I had discovered and made plans for what I would do in the future.

"I think this sequence gives some indication that I progressed in my method of work through accepting freely the suggestions of others who I thought should be in a position to give good ones."

III. Records and organization of work:

8. *Am I progressing in my ability to keep records that include the type of materials I am likely to need later on? Evidence?*

"Especially on the problem I am working on at present am I keeping records of material that I will definitely use later on. I have records of sources of material to be used later on. I have taken every problem and listed reasonable possibilities and then stated my conclusion or decision. Although I have not made a complete list of material to be used, I do intend to make this list as soon as I have made all of my decisions.

"In my problem I have organized the materials in such a way as to help me later on. In placing them under specific problems I shall have a sort of a file of problems and later on when the need arises I can go directly to the specific problem and get some suggestions for possible answers to it. This ability has a carry over value for other subjects as well. I have found this same method useful in many other subjects."

9. *Am I improving in the ability to organize my work? Evidence?*

"Previously I sat down and wrote out an outline, and then filled in. Now I make a temporary outline and set my specific topics or problems written on separate sheets. After this, I take each sheet that has a heading and expand on them from the material collected from books and articles. Then I write my personal view on the subject. Now I can look at some material and tell if it is of any value to me, because I have my general outline in mind.

"For this question I would like to contrast the organization of the study of my first problem, the aims and objectives of physical education, with the study of my last problem, the core curriculum and physical education. For my first problem I just made a list of my objectives after studying the parents', teachers', and pupils' viewpoints. But for my last problem I had a definite outline which was as follows:

(1) What is the core curriculum? (2) Relation of core to physical education? (3) Ways physical education is connected with core curriculum? (4) What are the implications of the core curriculum? (5) What is the task of the physical education teacher in this new curriculum? (6) What methods should be used? (7) How should guidance be carried on? (8) What are ways to organize a class? (9) What are special problems I am likely to face in trying to use the core curriculum in my teaching? What are possible solutions to each problem?"

IV. Initiative:

10. *Am I learning to plan my work more effectively? Evidence?*

"When I go to the library for work on my problem I now have a clear idea in mind as to what I am going to spend my time doing. I have found that by putting down ideas before beginning work saves endless time that was formerly wasted. I feel that I have progressed by doing this. There is still plenty of room for improvement, however. I still find it hard to study at regular times.

"I have not only learned to plan my own work more effectively in this course but in every course I am taking and in the spending of my time out-of-class. The discussions we have had on record keeping have been most beneficial to me for my personal improvement. I now keep a daily record on my calen-

dar of everything I am supposed to do for a day and how long I should spend doing this. I have saved much time that would otherwise be wasted."

11. *Am I improving in the ability to go ahead with my study without being told almost every step? Evidence?*

"Now I see that every part of my study leads directly or indirectly to another part of it. I think that this is some evidence that I am improving in my ability to proceed without being told at every point what to do next. Other evidence of this is that my study is seeming more useful to me than it seemed at the beginning of the semester.

"At the beginning of my work on my problem, I was at a loss as to where to get material and how to organize it, and just what kind of material I should get. Then I had to ask for help and guidance, but now I find much less trouble along these lines."

V. Interest in work:

12. *Is my interest in the work growing? Evidence?*

"I think that one sign of my progress is that I am becoming more interested in the general topic and wish to go into the subject more thoroughly than I had originally planned. Since I wrote my first study into an article form, I have been studying personality tests. I think that this is an interesting study, and I have a very intense interest in it from an objective as well as a personal viewpoint.

"At the beginning of the semester I thought that the study of a problem was a waste of time. I worked because I had to. After I really understood the significance and benefit to be obtained I began to take interest. Now I enjoy working on my problem and on the class discussions."

VI. Open-mindedness and objectivity:

13. *Am I improving in the ability to hold my mind open sufficiently on all controversial issues?*

"I think I have become more open-minded since I have participated in the discussions in this class. Many of the opinions voiced made my 'blood boil' but I have tried to turn them over in my mind and see if there could be a good point there. Many times I have been able to see a different angle of the question by this procedure.

"At the first of the year I had prejudices which were foolish, I know, but which I couldn't help. Not all of these have disappeared but they have decreased and I don't get mad in a discussion as easily as I did."

14. *Are the conclusions I have drawn based on evidence? If so, illustrate.*

"I now feel that my answers and conclusions are based on reasoning and evidence. For instance, when I entered this class, I had many of the same ideas and factors in mind that I now have, but the difference is that now I can give at least one reason why I hold a conclusion. One specific idea I had upon which I changed my mind was the one that teachers and associates could discover the desirable traits and the undesirable ones after they had known the person a short while, because I felt that such traits always were the first thing you noticed about a person when you met him. Now I see that personality tests have a great value to persons interested in changing or developing personality in others. My reasons for changing my mind are listed in my progress report (record).

"No, on personal opinion I am afraid."

VII. Use of available resources:

15. *Am I learning how to use the library and other resources better in study? Evidence?*

"I have learned the wealth of usable material to help solve current problems which is contained in current periodicals. Heretofore I have used books for study almost exclusively. Another main source I have used a lot is talking with people who can help me. I have learned that it is a good idea to check ideas with experienced people with ideas that are read from books.

"I think that I have improved tremendously in the use of the library. In the first place, I did not even know of the existence of the Education Index until this semester. I did not realize the importance of magazines and pamphlets nor the wealth of information they contained. This was a new aspect of the library which I for some reason took to be primarily for amusement and pastime. Why or where I got this idea, I do not know."

16. *Am I learning how and where to get some materials which are not immediately available? If so, give examples of what has been learned.*

"I find I can get much more help from the librarian than I ever thought possible before. I once thought the librarian just checked out books. I also find that many of the other teachers are able and willing to give me valuable help on some of the problems upon which I have worked. This is the first semester in which I have used sources of this type.

"I have found that educational publishing concerns are frequently a good source of help on some problems. Also, the federal and some state governments have much free and/or inexpensive material which is quite helpful on some problems."

17. *In my study am I placing too much dependence on books and not enough on other resources available? If so, what resources should I probably use more?*

"Yes, I think I am inclined to do this. Some of the resources which I should use more are the juvenile court, to learn first hand what methods are used for delinquent children, and interviews with teachers who know specifically about teaching mentally deficient children.

"There are other resources which I should probably use more. It seems that there is such a wealth of knowledge on the field of personality in the library that I have studied it very little outside of these books. I have used some of my ideas that were gotten from observing friends and members of my family. Other sources that I could get information from are the radio, movies, teachers, and discussions with some members of the class."

VIII. General Method:

18. *Am I giving sufficient consideration to the methods of study and teaching used in class and out of class so that I might sometime try them myself? If so, show this by indicating:*

(a) What outstanding characteristics of our methods are:

"The method used which was most outstanding to me was that of the self-check or the records which we keep. The student has a sense of responsibility, definite work and assignments, work which will be of definite interest and help to the individual.

"The thing that I am most interested in is the fact that in the class interest is never at a standstill. It isn't dull and lifeless like so many courses in rote learning. The strength of it lies in the fact that the students have a considerable share in choosing what they will study and for this reason are more willing to work. The democratic method used in handling the class and planning the work has impressed me."

(b) Possible weaknesses and possible strengths of the methods [Note: Two answers concerning weaknesses and two concerning strengths are given]:

"We don't learn facts about the history of general education in the general, conventional sense. For example, someone might ask us who wrote the first textbooks for children, and we might not know. But to me that is not very important and I think the history we studied was much more important.

"This type of approach to learning is so different to what many students are accustomed to that it is difficult for some to appreciate and take adequate advantage of it.

"One of the greatest strengths about this course is that we use our own judgment in almost all things. Few courses I have had before help us develop our judgment. I feel that writing the important facts gleaned from a variety of sources together with the expressing of my own thoughts in relation to them has been a very good way of learning, and also of thinking. The method of study which we use in this class requires the development of initiative.

"The student learns the means and habit of testing himself continually so that he can progress more rapidly in his learning."

19. *In my work in other classes am I using some of the ideas with respect to study methods gained in this class? If so, illustrate.*

"I have used the ideas and methods in my practice teaching, particularly in the matter of keeping records. In my future teaching I plan to let the students have more freedom in the choice of special problems to study.

"Yes. One of the most valuable [ideas] is directly related to and results from the study of my problem. I have begun to consider the material taken up in other classes, not only for that which seems important for passing exams, but also for the things I will probably need when I begin teaching science and related subjects. I have been using the method of record keeping we developed in all of my courses. As a result of this, I find when I get ready to review that I am able to tell much better what material I have when it was obtained, and from where it came; I have followed one suggestion of using separate notebooks for each course and have found this most useful. I received the suggestions for using the *Educational Index* in this course and have used them in four other courses this semester.

"The suggestion of using other sources than textbooks and magazines has been of much help to me in studying and compiling material in other projects. I have used this method in three other courses. One thing I have learned in this class has been of paramount importance to me and will help me in the remainder of my life. I have learned to analyze a problem, think it through, and then try possible approaches to a solution."

20. *Give one or more suggestions for improving class work so that it will be more profitable to me.*

"I believe *my* class work may be improved by taking a more active part in the discussions. The class work on the whole seemed very interesting although I think it would be more profitable to me if we finished a topic completely (?) rather than skim the top and then skip to another one. For a while I thought there were altogether too many loose ends dangling around but I do not feel this way at the conclusion of the course.

"I suppose more teacher dominance would have been more profitable in my case since I have been used to it ever since I started to school. However, I approve of this method of teaching and intend to use it myself when I teach."

IX. Evaluation and self-evaluation:

21. *Am I learning how to check up on what I have done so that I may improve my future work? Evidence?*

"I recently have begun to evaluate my work with certain specific goals in mind. I find that with the goal in mind my work is more inclined to direct itself to this goal in a straight line, rather than get waylaid at different paths toward this goal.

"When the students looked at the folders and wrote criticisms, I think that was one of the best helps there could have been. This evaluation of other students sort of made me check to see whether my work came up to my standards. Also, I took their suggestions and tried to do something about them."

22. *Am I sufficiently conscious of my present weaknesses? If so, indicate what I think they are and indicate what steps I think I should take in trying to eliminate them.*

"This type of examination helps me to see my weak points. I wish I could have read one of these about two months ago. One great weakness of mine is to have a 'set' opinion on some few matters that have been brought up in class. I have tried to be open-minded but some few opinions voiced are so entirely different from anything I have been associated with in the past I have a hard time trying to see the other person's point of view. I am trying hard to see why the other person should feel as he does and am trying to see the good in his opinion.

"I feel that I am more conscious of the weaknesses in my work which I have improved upon that the weaknesses that I still possess. Some of my original weaknesses have been modified, and some, completely done away with so far as I can judge. One weakness that I am very conscious of is my lack of thoroughness. I have heard it said of one girl: 'She stops at nothing short of perfection.' I wish that I could overcome my habit of working fast and carelessly. I realize the importance of such habits as care and thoroughness and hope that I am acquiring them at the present. I feel that the best way to do this is to do my work on time."

23. *Add one additional question which I think would be appropriate in this self-examination.* [Note: This was somewhat difficult since the original questions were set up by the class under the leadership of the instructor.]

"What have been the chief factors which have motivated me to work in this course? How does this list compare with a similar one from another course I took at the same time?

"Do I see some importance in doing everything that I do? [Note added by student: This question should be taken into consideration very thoroughly. I think that the teacher should impress upon the students' thoughts the importance of their work. I feel that the attitude which the student takes in this matter is largely a reflection of the teacher's attitude. One teacher whom I have at the present time says such things as these very often: 'I know this textbook isn't any too good, but seems like we have to have something to keep you all busy.' 'There's nothing important in this chapter, but you'd better read it because you know we're going to have a departmental exam.' 'If I give you all a cut today, will you be ready for a quiz next time?' 'You all can sleep in my class, just so you don't snore, and wake up your neighbor.' The students usually laugh at such remarks, so the teacher thinks that he is going over big, but the students don't, and they don't like it. There are also sincere professors who can't get up interest in their work, because they haven't set up specific goals toward which to advance."]

24. *Contrast this method of examination with the ones I am more familiar by giving outstanding characteristics of each.*

"This method of examination is the most fair examination of this type. It gives you a chance to think through the question and time to form your conclusions and write them down more logically. You are calm and do not have to do it until you get in the mood. The tenseness that is present during an examination is absent. The other method of examination just tests what facts pop into your mind and the conclusions you draw without sufficient thought. If you had had a chance to think over the question you would probably have answered it entirely different.

"With this type of exam there is little desire or need to cheat. Facts stated are things that the student already knows or can obtain in some legitimate manner. I think that by the use of this type of examination, the teacher can evaluate his success in teaching as well as the students' success in improving."

25. (a) *Give what I think are possible weaknesses of this method of self-examination.*

"This type of test is relatively new and perhaps confusing to some students. Most students are used to cramming for exams and they might not treat this test seriously enough.

"A person can easily give the right answer to some

of the questions. Sometimes students are prone to put down what they think the teacher wants them to put down."

(b) *Give what I think are the major values to be derived from a test of this sort.*

"This type of test is a sort of review. It helps one to evaluate his work and see just where he stands. It encourages planning in the fields in which you have weaknesses. It makes one conscious of the practical side of the course. It is really a learning procedure in that one learns to write his ideas in such a way that another person is able to study his work methods. One learns to think by approaching the questions as problems to be solved.

"Instead of simply requiring facts this test emphasizes thoughtful opinions based on facts."

Visual and Other Aids

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The writer has long been interested in the use of teacher- or pupil-made kodachrome slides as an instructional aid. Kodachrome transparencies, when projected upon a screen, have a sharpness of delineation, a warmth of color, and an appearance of luminosity that give them exceptional beauty.

Perhaps the greatest advantage of kodachrome is that good transparencies may be made by teacher or pupils without a great deal of expense. Before the war, film cost was such that a slide mounted in glass could be produced for about twenty cents. The initial film cost includes processing at the factory and mounting in a cardboard slide. Because of the perishability of the cardboard frames, it is always desirable to remount the transparencies in glass.

Although the two major tools in the making of kodachrome transparencies—cameras and exposure meters—can not be purchased new at present, it may be well at this time to suggest the proper equipment in case interested teachers should have an opportunity to purchase used cameras or meters. The two most important features of a good camera are the lens and shutter. The former should be color-corrected and accurately ground and the latter should be accurate and dependable. All other features are incidental to the lens and shutter.

Because kodachrome film requires more light for proper exposure than does black-and-white film, it is essential that the camera have a "fast" lens, that is, a lens that admits a relatively great amount of light for a given exposure. Lens speed is expressed by means of a ratio, the derivation of which it is not necessary to explain here. What prospective camera purchasers must remember is that the smaller the ratio number the faster the lens. For successful kodachrome photography under varying light conditions a lens not slower than f:4.5 should be used, and an f:3.5 lens will be even more satisfactory.

The major trick of successful kodachrome photography is correct exposure. Black-and-white film has considerable "latitude," that is, the exposure may be wrong by two or three stop openings without ruining the finished result. In the case of kodachrome film, under- or over-exposure of more than half a stop may destroy color values or completely ruin the picture. For this reason, a photo-electric cell exposure meter of known accuracy is an essential piece of equipment for the teacher who wishes to make good kodachrome transparencies. The light intensity of every scene should be measured with the meter and the camera diaphragm adjusted accordingly.

The other major item of equipment needed by the teacher who wishes to utilize kodachrome photography as a teaching aid is a slide projector. Since many schools now own projectors capable of handling 2″ x 2″ slides, the teacher often will not need to purchase this item of equipment. The teacher who purchases his own projector should make certain that an adequate cooling system is built into the machine. Old-style projectors heated slides badly if they were left in more than two or three seconds. Many projectors now have a circulating air cooling system operated by a power blower. Since the dyes in kodachrome film are ruined by excessive heat, it is wise to select a projector which keeps heat from the slides, even though the cost is greater.

Kodachrome film is made in two styles, regular for outdoor photography and Type A for indoor picture taking. When using regular film with floodlights indoors, a blue filter must be used over the camera lens and when using Type A outdoors a salmon-colored filter must be employed. If one wishes to use a single roll for both indoor and outdoor photography, the latter combination is better, since the use of a blue filter with regular film greatly increases the exposure time.

The accumulation of a teacher- or pupil-made kodachrome library gives the teacher a visual aid that is distinctly his own. The slides will emphasize the scenes which to the teacher or pupils seem most important. There is no problem in adapting to the teacher's uses a visual aid made by someone who may have had a quite different philosophy concerning what is significant. Kodachromes may thus be a personal, individualized teaching aid,

Earl W. Dible, a high school teacher of Sacramento, California, tells in a recent magazine article of his experiences in making kodachrome slides.[1] Mr. Dible turned the slide-making into a class project. He selected two students who were interested in photography and in doing historical research. Under his guidance, the students gathered information on historical sites within sixty miles of Sacramento. The pupils then made a Saturday tour through the heart of the "gold rush" country, photographing scenes that would contrast the old and the new in the history of California expansion. Eighteen scenes were photographed and because of the care used in planning each one, not a single exposure was ruined. The transparencies were mounted in glass slides and are now a useful addition to Mr. Dible's teaching materials.

Vacation trips offer teachers rich possibilities in the way of potential slide material. With proper planning, the geography or the social conditions of an entire region could be transferred to film. For example, one project might be to take a series of photographs in the Tennessee Valley, showing power dams, reforestation projects, soil conservation practices, and other aspects of the total TVA program. Another project might be the photography of depressed areas of the deep South.

News Notes

Teachers may be interested in a booklet entitled *The Navy Turns to Training Aids,* which is being distributed free of charge by Radio Corporation of America. The booklet is composed of reprints of three articles which appeared in *The School Executive* on the use of teaching aids in the Navy. Write for a copy to The Educational Department, 61-9 H, RCA Victor Division, Radio Corporation of America, Camden, New Jersey.

Last year the Society for Visual Education, Inc., 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago 11, Illinois, distributed slidefilms made up of photographs from the "Picture Story" section of *Coronet* magazine. Because of the popularity of these slidefilms, a new series is being produced during the present school year. The first of the series is "China's Home Front." It was released in October. This slidefilm depicts the agriculture, commerce, industry and home life of China. The second of the series, "Miracle of Moscow," is to be released in November. It presents the inside story of the organization that has given the Soviet armies their morale and tremendous driving power. The third of the series, a technicolor slidefilm entitled "Glass," will portray the history of glass-making from its earliest days. Its release date will be announced later, as will be the title of the remainder of the series. The entire series of eight slidefilms may be purchased for two dollars. In addition to the slidefilms, the SVE is distributing reprints of the *Coronet* photographs at one cent a copy, with a minimum order of twenty-five prints a month required. Interested persons should write to the Society for Visual Education for further information.

Social studies teachers should be acquainted with the services of the Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, 19 South LaSalle Street, Chicago 3, Illinois. This organization has a number of films which can be borrowed without charge. One such film is *Freedom Rides on Rubber,* a two and one-half reel sound film on the production of synthetic rubber. The Bureau also has for distribution a series of eight two-reel technicolor films on American history produced by Warner Brothers. A catalog will be sent upon request.

Schools may obtain at no cost other than transportation charges a new film entitled *A Passport to Health.* This film is being distributed by Sharp & Dohme, 640 North Broad Street, Philadelphia 1, Pennsylvania. Its topic is the prevention of communicable diseases in children. It was produced with a cast of Broadway players. Sharp & Dohme request that the film be booked well in advance because of the heavy demand for it.

Castle Films, Field Bldg., Chicago 3, Illinois, is offering a new anthropological film entitled *Belles of the South Seas,* which may be of interest to social studies teachers. According to Castle publicity, this film is "An authentic film study of Polynesian and Melanesian peoples . . . their wondrous tribal dances . . . their odd, ancient customs. . . ." For further information, write to Castle Films.

[1] Earl W. Dible, "Student-Made Kodachrome Slides for History Class," *The Educational Screen,* September, 1944.

Index for Volume XXXV of THE SOCIAL STUDIES will appear in the January, 1945 issue.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF
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COMPULSORY MILITARY TRAINING

"We must decide. . . . Should we have compulsory military training for all youth after the war?" The debate over this question waxes while measures to require military training for all young men are being introduced into Congress. Since the matter closely concerns older high school youth it will be the subject of discussion in the social studies classroom.

The question is argued pro and con in *Educational Leadership* for October. This journal is the organ of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A. High school children, educators, Congressmen, and others presented there nearly all the arguments that are likely to be made. This number of the journal therefore is an excellent source for anyone seeking the various views on the subject. Since any legislation for compulsory military training will not apply to youth below eighteen years of age, only high school seniors, by and large, are vitally concerned. Such seniors could read with profit the articles in *Educational Leadership*.

The Executive Committee of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development is convinced that "legislation requiring [compulsory] military service should not be passed" now, in the midst of war. They doubt its desirability at any time, but if this nation must have it they believe it would be far better to make the decision in the less emotional atmosphere of peace times. Because military authorities, legislators, and others are taking up the problem now, the committee urges teachers to give it their active consideration and make their views known to law-makers and other leaders.

UNITED STATES FOREIGN POLICY

It is an old story in the United States that government action in foreign affairs is subject to the checkrein of public opinion. Even the annoyed public officials directing our foreign relations would not want it to be otherwise. But the checkrein of an uninterested and uninformed public could cause disaster. Teachers of the social studies bear no small obligation for interesting and informing the public opinion at least of the younger generation. To aid them they will find invaluable the student of "U.S. Foreign Policy and the Voter" which Vera Micheles Dean made in *Foreign Policy Reports* for September 15.

By way of introduction Mrs. Dean assayed public opinion in this country and drew attention to the many cross strata in it which arise from the composite nature of our population. In the interests of an intelligent public opinion which will help and not hamper wise foreign policy, Mrs. Dean discusses briefly four adjustments necessary between the Executive and the people: (1) State Department should be more responsive to public opinion. (2) Voters should get more current information. (3) People must communicate with Congress. (4) Executive must establish partnership with Congress.

Most of Mrs. Dean's study is a survey of American foreign policy since World War I, an historical summary especially useful to teachers. Mrs. Dean is no believer in isolationism. On the contrary, she believes firmly in international cooperation and shows it in her appraisal of events of the last quarter century. She concludes that, during the last decade, our government has moved toward such cooperation about as rapidly as the public would permit, and she is convinced that such cooperation is demanded of us more than ever in the years that lie ahead. A page of "Recent Books on U.S. Foreign Policy" is added.

Much in the recent history of this country highlights the importance of foreign relations. Some fear that misinterpretations of past policies may mar our vision of what present-day conditions really require of us. Mrs. Dean's account revealed such foreboding. Misconceptions of past American foreign policy stem in part from false impressions of the policies of former presidents. It is timely therefore to find presented in *Current History*, beginning with the October issue, selections from the addresses of our presidents on foreign policy, which show just what they did say or write and just what positions they did take.

The first article on "Foreign Policy of the Presidents" covers the period from the establishment of the United States to John Quincy Adams. These addresses reveal both the differences in domestic and foreign conditions in their day and in ours and what the president's conception of American policy was. Washington's *Farewell Address* properly occupies first place. Then follow excerpts from the presidential messages of John Adams, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and John Quincy Adams.

The series is genuinely enlightening for the average citizen and will be of great service in the classrooms in American history and problems.

NEW ERA FOR COLONIES

The observation is frequently made that colonial

policy is being revolutionized by the war. Such great colonial powers as Britain, France, and Holland lost their colonies almost with the first breath of the Pacific war. The colonists themselves, in many instances, displayed little concern about changing masters. And in many instances where colonies were not lost it was largely due to the aid of such outside powers as the United States.

With peace, will colonies be returned to the *status quo ante?* Joseph M. Jones, writing in the October *Fortune* ("Half of One World"), argues that a revolution in colonial policy is taking place. For one thing, colonial peoples are going to have a much larger voice in determining their own affairs. For another, colonial powers are beginning to see themselves as trustees rather than as owners of areas to be exploited. Powers like Russia and the United States moreover, in the interest of their own security, are likely to want a voice in the postwar arrangements and controls of colonial areas which do not belong to them. Groups of nations are likely to establish joint colonial bodies responsible for colonial administration, such as the Anglo-American Commission now functioning in the Caribbean.

Mr. Jones, with the aid of maps, suggests possible regional divisions or groupings of colonies, principally in Africa and the Pacific areas, and indicates the nations most likely to join together, in each case, for the management of them. His discussion opens our eyes to the changes already in the making among the colonial powers and to the lines of development that may be followed after the war.

The Philippines

General MacArthur's recent return to the Philippines makes most timely the observations of Professor Ralph H. Gabriel on "The Philippines," in *The Yale Review* for the autumn of 1944. This interpretation of the role of the Philippines by Yale's known historian will re-pay careful reading.

The Japanese have tried to convince the Filipinos that they are well rid of the whites, the Americans. They declared that the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere, with the whites expelled from Asia, held higher promise for the Filipinos than the former set up. Nevertheless, the Filipinos have not shown an eagerness to share the convictions of the Japanese.

The Filipinos have learned that much of the American activities in their islands has been for the welfare of the people there. They have learned much about democratic processes. Of all Eastern peoples the Filipinos have been the closest to occidental culture—Spanish and American—while at the same time they have never lost their oriental heritage. As President Osmeña has said, " 'History has made us equally at home in the traditions and civilizations of both East and West. . . . It may be said . . . that we are the most occidental of Orientals and the most oriental of Occidentals.' "

In the Philippines East and West meet. The Philippine nation can serve to interpret each to the other, for its history has prepared the people for that task. In the event of another great war, the defensive frontier of the United States in the East, it is now evident, lies in the Philippines and not in Hawaii. The Philippine Commonwealth is strategic in many ways.

Postwar Educational Planning

A recent Research Bulletin (No. XXII) of the National Education Association made "Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America." A meaty summary of these proposals formed the leading article in the October number of *The Educational Digest.* Teachers as well as administrators and school-board members will find it helpful as they think about and plan for the educational future of their schools.

The proposals rightly begin where we are. Such items as strengthening state boards of education, appointment instead of popular election of superintendents, and extension of vocational education on the secondary level are not new but do need implementation in some states. The entire list of proposals for state, local, and federal action, totalling fifty items, is too long to be given here in full. A few of them will appeal especially to social studies teachers. Laws requiring instruction in specific subjects are condemned. It is recommended that the compulsory school age be raised to seventeen and that the school year be lengthened to 200 days. A state loan service of visual aids is urged. To improve salary schedules and to reduce class sizes to about twenty-five to thirty are measures looked upon with favor. It is proposed that the federal Office of Education be strengthened and that federal aid be provided for needy districts, without extending federal control.

These few scattered items illustrate only inadequately this worthwhile formulation of proposals for the improvement of education. The recommendations themselves were culled from hundreds of books and reports and articles by educators and reflect "the soundest and most practical of current ideas." The early drafts of the proposals were criticized by leaders, both professional and lay, before being finally revised and published.

If yours is a community which is now planning its education in terms of the foreseeable postwar set up, you will want also to read the brief but adequate account of what New York State is doing, as related in *The Nation's Schools* for October. J. Cayce Morrison, Assistant Commissioner for Research of the New York State Department of Education, describes

the plans afoot in "The Community Has a Stake in Postwar Planning." He tells what New York's educational program is, what the items are in the plan of precedure, the working manual that is being used to guide the project, what committees are studying what phases of the program, of whom the committees are composed, and the interworking of professional educators and community representatives.

Eighteen Notable Articles

The Clearing House for October celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary by re-printing eighteen outstanding articles culled from one thousand that appeared in the journal during the past eight years. The articles cover various phases of education: administration, curriculum, pupil and faculty problems, teaching, and public relations. Several of the articles appeal especially to social studies teachers, many of them having been mentioned here at the time that they first were published. They are the kind of article that are worth re-reading.

National Outlook of Large Cities

San Francisco, New Orleans, Baltimore, Boston, and St. Louis have more problems in common than any one of them has with the small urban centers in its own state. That the mayors of the large cities of the country have found it profitable to meet together and confer on their many common problems is evident from the fact that for fifteen years they have been holding the United States Conferences of Mayors.

The need for unity of approach to many problems has compelled the mayors of the cities of our forty-eight states to turn to Washington as the unifying center, since there could be no unity in the forty-eight separate state capitals. The trend toward Washington, born of the needs of urban development, is independent of party control in national affairs or of states' rights. These things simply do not enter the picture.

How all this has come about is described in the leading article of the October number of *Survey Graphic*: "Big Cities & States' Rights." The author, Douglas H. MacNeil, is a member of the state government of New Jersey and has for years been engaged in public welfare work.

Whatever new life may be breathed into state supremacy in this country, it will not help to solve many important urban problems—health, delinquency, taxation, civil service, etc.—which need a united, nation-wide attack and not forty-eight independent ones. The large cities actually have considerable independent authority over their own problems and it was the nature of their situation that led them to seek to collaborate directly through their mayors and to turn to the national government for aid where common problems required national leadership. "Direct collaboration between virtually autonomous cities and the federal government is a political reality . . ." which must be recognized, said Mr. MacNeil.

The mayors neither question the desire of state governments to help nor the ability of state officials to deal with their problems, but the inevitable separateness of the states blocks the indispensable unity of approach. Mr. MacNeil gives many illustrations of the common problems and how they have been dealt with in the mayors' conferences. Many state governments have treated their cities with much less regard than has the national government, a fact well known to the mayors. Is a new federal agency in the making?

American Historical Literature

Why is not historically effective literature taught in our English classes in place of much of the literature that titillates the connoisseur but has never moved a nation? In effect that challenge is flung at English teachers in the October *Harper's* by E. C. Drake, the *nom de plume* of a naval officer, a Meiklejohn disciple, and an author of stories and articles.

In "Renegotiate the English Teacher!" Mr. Drake argues that much superb American literature in the historical field is ignored, to the loss of students of literature and the neglect of a means for citizenship training. Pain's *Common Sense,* the Declaration of Independence, and various essays in *The Federalist,* for example, possess high literary value. Webster's Reply to Hayne and many of the addresses of Lincoln and Wilson are literary masterpieces. Many persons prominent in our history have bequeathed literature to us which not only was historically effective but also was "in its numerous guises emotional, terse, graceful, and uniformly well composed." The study of such literature in English courses would be of inestimable aid to the teaching of American history. Perhaps there would be less forgetting of our history by our students if the English and history departments would thus re-enforce each other.

The Wheel In History

The "Evolution of the wheel" has long interested Dr. H. E. Kleinschmidt, a prominent physician. In the course of his wide travels he has collected many examples and much information about the evolution of the wheel. The highlights of what he has learned Dr. Kleinschmidt presented in his illustrated essay on the subject in *The Scientific Monthly* for October.

An amazing thing about the wheel is that it is a means of movement nowhere used in nature. Wings, legs, fins, and other means of motion by organisms do not use the principle of the wheel. Man therefore had no natural model to imitate and his invention

of the wheel is a tribute to his creative genius. Undoubtedly the wheel evolved gradually, although the evidences of its origins are scanty.

Dr. Kleinschmidt summarizes these evidences, describes the problems facing the early inventors, and suggests how those problems may have been worked out in the long evolution from primitive rollers and runners to the modern wheels and gears. Because the wheel, in its endless forms and their endless uses, has historically been an indispensable part of the evolution of civilization and is basic to civilization today, this attempt to reconstruct the development of the wheel is a matter of great interest to our classrooms. Dr. Kleinschmidt's essay was not written for young readers, but older pupils should find it within their grasp. The ten photographs are useful in any classroom where the rise and development of civilization is studied.

Cultural Olympics

Despite wartime limitations, Cultural Olympics continues to be the center for many of the cultural activities in eastern Pennsylvania and neighboring states. By supplying a free public platform for the presentation of non-professional artistic talent of all kinds, group as well as individual, Cultural Olympics constantly uncovers artistry in the community and encourages its refinement through its competitions.

This season, as in previous years, the program of activities includes vocal and instrumental music, the graphic and plastic arts and crafts, speech and literature, and the dance and dramatics. The participating groups cover all ages from children of elementary school age to adults. Among the notable features of the program for the first half of 1945 are the music festivals in January, the dance and dramatic festivals in March, the Pan-American programs in April, and the Choreon and dramatic presentation in May.

Those interested but unacquainted with Cultural Olympics will care to know that there are no registration fees for membership and that any non-professional person or group may join. Copies of the program for this school year and full information about the Olympics may be secured from the Office of the Director of Cultural Olympics, Room 205 Bennett Hall, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia 4, Pa.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by Richard H. McFeely
The George School, George School, Pennsylvania

First Fleet, The Story of the U. S. Coast Guard at War. By Reg Ingraham. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1944. Pp. 325. $3.00.

Our Coast Guard Academy, A History and Guide. By Riley Hughes. New York: The Devin-Adair Company, 1944. Pp. 213. $2.00.

Reg Ingraham, *Time* magazine's navy correspondent, has written a breezy account of the nation's oldest naval force which most high school students will find interesting. Starting with Alexander Hamilton's revenue cutter service in 1790, the United States Coast Guard has grown in size and expanded its services until today its members are not only guarding our coasts but fighting in every theater of war.

Mr. Ingraham tells about the establishment of the first cutter service, the work of the Coast Guard throughout the nineteenth century, and its anti-submarine work during World War I. Most of the book is devoted to the present war, but it is not a complete account of the Coast Guard's participation. Such a history will have to wait for several years. This is, rather, an account of many of the dramatic incidents connected with that participation, and a description of the many types of services the Coast Guard performs.

One of the more interesting chapters describes the capture, by Coast Guard personnel, of a Nazi weather station in Greenland several months before Pearl Harbor. The spectacular anti-submarine work of the cutters *Spencer* and *Campbell* are given adequate and colorful coverage. The "sandpounders" (beach patrol), Coast Guard air force, and surf station crews all receive recognition.

There are many indications that the postwar Coast Guard will be larger than at any time prior to 1941. That means an increased opportunity for young men to officer its cutters, patrol boats, and shore stations. Riley Hughes' book, the first ever written about the Coast Guard Academy, belongs on the vocations shelf of every well equipped high school library. Its style is more restrained than that of *First Fleet*, yet the material is presented in a way which should hold the attention of 'teen age readers. It is well organized, beautifully illustrated with a wide selection of photographs, and in many ways is superior to Mr. Ingraham's book.

Following a short but adequate summary of Coast

Guard history is a longer account of officer training within the service. One chapter describes the reserve officer training program which turns out the oft misnamed "ninety day wonders." Another, which should prove especially interesting to girls, describes the SPAR training being carried on at the Academy during the war.

The second part of Mr. Hughes' book is devoted to the Academy itself. The course of study, equipment, and student life are accurately and realistically described. There is no attempt to disguise the fact that while the new cadet will find much pleasure, his share of glamour, and an excellent engineering education, he also faces four hard, exacting years of training and preparation to fulfill the declared mission of the Academy:

> To graduate young men with sound bodies, stout hearts, and alert minds, with a liking for the sea and its lore, and with that high sense of honor, loyalty, and obedience which goes with trained initiative and leadership. . . .

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

U. S. Coast Guard
Groton, Connecticut

The Disappearing Daily: Chapters in American Newspaper Evolution. By Oswald Garrison Villard. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1944. Pp. vii, x, 285. $3.50.

Oswald Garrison Villard is well known for his critical comments on American newspapers, and here he presents a supplement to his earlier work, *Some Newspapers and Newspapermen,* published in 1923 and revised in 1926. The title essay takes its theme from the decreasing number of daily newspapers, not their decrease in circulation, and is accounted for by the tremendous expense now involved in starting such a newspaper. There are other trends here treated which might reinforce this contention, such as the decreasing political influence of the dailies and their major concern with entertainment features, especially the comics. Then there is the standardization of news through the Associated Press, and the operation of this great institution is critically surveyed. This is not an external survey, however, for Mr. Villard and his papers have played a role in many of the problems which he analyzes. He looks back to the days of personal journalism with much admiration for the great editors, and he has a word of approval for the columnists who appear to continue the tradition of a personal following; yet he is caustic in his comment on certain of these all-wise pundits. The great editors of the past, he reminds us, did not try to be experts in every field. The extensive syndication of columnists, in fact, is in the direction of standardization.

The major portion of the book contains a survey of newspapers, newspaper chains, and certain historic figures. Here are Mr. Villard's judgments on his contemporaries and certain of his precursors. Never prone to pull his punches, he colors his views with his own slant on politics and international affairs. There is some of this in his unfriendly appraisal of Frank Knox, and more in a kind of *post mortem* on the Hearst chain in the process of liquidation. Yet he endeavors to be fair, and one may be surprised to see Colonel Robert R. McCormick praised for his service to freedom of the press. Likewise there is due regard for the quality of the *New York Herald Tribune* and the *Times.* Since his earlier appraisal, there have been some changes, and the Scripps-Howard newspapers are given less approval, the *New York Times* more.

"The Press and the President" reviews changes in that important field since the advent of Roosevelt. The latter part of the book deals with historic personages such as E. L. Godkin, James Gordon Bennett, and finally William Lloyd Garrison. These chapters are interesting but out of place, since they have no connection with the "disappearing daily"—in fact Garrison did not edit a daily. Perhaps this is a kind of history of journalism in reverse, working from the present to the past.

Like his other books, this bears the stamp of Villard's personality. His readable and vigorous style, the gusto of his enthusiasms and dislikes, and the straightforward integrity of his judgments are all a part of the man and his book. He is still the discriminating editor, ready to crusade for good or against evil, to uphold standards and taste, and to exemplify that American journalism which he seeks to chronicle. No one can read him without feeling a new interest in newspapers and their makers.

MILTON W. HAMILTON

Albright College
Reading, Pennsylvania

Public Spending and Post-War Economic Policy. By Sherwood M. Fine. New York: Columbia University Press, 1944. Pp. ix, 177. $2.50.

Much research has been devoted in the last decade to the effects of fiscal policy on employment, business conditions and national income. The present volume is a contribution toward what might be called suggestive synthesizing of such work. While it will not be completely satisfactory to many experts in the field since it glosses over some details of analysis under terms like price maladjustment, it nevertheless presents a clear, readable exposition of this literature and suggests a ready direction through its complexities.

It starts interestingly enough with the origins of fiscal policy as a method of attack upon unemploy-

ment from the days of rigidly confined public finance down to the present time. The author discusses the older forms of public works and various attempts at pump-priming with an adequate exposition of the Multiplier and its effects as set forth in current theory. He raises a number of questions about the position of the secular stagnation school, criticizing Professor Hansen on several specific grounds. Provided that a hospitable post-war investment climate is present with due consideration for risk capital in the tax structure, he does not fear a lack of technological innovation. Neither is he concerned overly about capital-saving technological progress. The author does emphasize market-imperfections and inflexibilities. He apparently has somewhat greater faith in the correctibility of such maladjustments, however, aided perhaps by stronger government correctives than heretofore used, than many other proponents of compensatory spending.

The author does not evidence any timidity with respect to dangers of mounting public indebtedness. He describes the potentialities of government borrowing in some detail in his chapter on "The Limits to Public Debt." He traces the shadow of the balanced budget principle quite through the spending policies of 1933-36 and gives an excellent brief assessment of the results and the weaknesses of the many ventures in public spending through the decade with war production finally bringing the prosperity which had never been achieved during the thirties.

The volume is brought to a close with a carefully worked out chapter on short-run and more permanent bases for post-war economic policy. Programs are not expounded in detail but suggestions are offered on the problems we shall face and the need for more extensive, specific programs is noted. An excellent selected bibliography is included.

The author leans toward the use of fiscal policy as a pump-priming device with an attempt at cyclical budgetary balance. He points out the unwieldiness and lags inherent in large scale public works if such a policy is to be a main reliance. He suggests the advantages of less durable types of spending programs, to be properly timed with respect to current business factors. Since he hopes, however, to keep public spending as non-competitive as possible with private enterprise, one may well ask for more detailed suggestions than low-cost housing alone for such a program. The large-scale public works are probably least competitive with private enterprise. Retaining the stated aims while at the same time stimulating quick-acting investment and consumers' demand may require further elucidation.

On the whole the book strikes a healthy note in the literature of this subject. Not viewed as a cure-all, fiscal policy is urged to supplement studies of administered prices, wage rigidities, and international economic cooperation. It would be valuable for business leaders' reading and excellent for students in college economics.

L. Reed Tripp

War Labor Board
Philadelphia

A Conception of Authority: An Introductory Study. By Kenneth D. Benne. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. 227. $2.65.

This is an attempt at an analysis of the authority relation. In the words of the jacket: "The argument of the book synthesizes two approaches to its subject matter. The first approach moves towards a generic conception of authority through analysis of typical cases of authority; the second approach confronts the developed generic conception of authority with two major traditional issues—the relation of "external" to "internal" authority and the interrelations of authority, power, and coercion. The generic conception is presented and tested against a survey of the concrete background problems of rebuilding adequate authority relations."

Quite definitely this is not a book for the general reader. The author apparently had no desire to make it a book of wide appeal. It is directed to specialized students in the philosophy of education and educational theory. There are a goodly number of uniquely long footnotes which serve to give the impression that the author is attempting to parade his scholarship.

The great struggle against totalitarianism in which we are engaged today would seem to call for a careful examination of the nature of political authority in any work entitled "A Conception of Authority." Although the book bears a 1943 publication date, there is little attempt made to help meet this need. While the "totalitarian myths of Fascism and Communism" are alluded to occasionally they are not given sufficient attention to merit inclusion in the Index. Since resistance to authoritarianism is the great task of our day, the title of this book, *A Conception of Authority,* will be misleading.

Sylvester John Hemleben

Fordham University
Brooklyn, New York

Latin America—Twenty Friendly Nations. By Prudence Cutright, W. W. Charters, and George I. Sanchez. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1944. Pp. 450. $2.00.

Our Latin American Neighbors. By Harriett McCune Brown and Helen Miller Bailey. Edited by Clarence H. Haring. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1944. Pp. 471. $2.20.

Many of us consider South and Central America only a place to visit and enjoy the scenery. The fact that people live there, and have lived there longer than our forebears have in North America has been of little importance to the majority of us. With the formation of the Republic of Texas, and its subsequent admission to the United States, and later the building of the Panama Canal, our attention to Latin America was held momentarily.

Generally speaking, we have thought of our fellow Americans as quaint, foreign, and picturesque; not as members of a culture and society similar to our own in many ways. With the promulgation of the Good Neighbor Policy and the more immediate action of Latin American countries in regard to the present war we have turned our interest to the South with renewed regard, and found a new avenue for historical study. Since Europe is occupied in a struggle of political nature, the countries which we have customarily thought of as a stable item for study in connection with the history of our country are no longer available. Therefore as a concrete basis for units of study in the social sciences, we can find no more suitable area than Latin America. We have long neglected this section of the Western Hemisphere as a part of our secondary curricula.

Recently these two books have been published which deal with these countries. They contain essentially the same material. They differ only slightly in their methods of presentation. The subject matter of each volume breaks down into three general areas: first, the early history of the region, including the prehistoric civilizations; second, the gaining of independence; and, third, the furthering of democracy and Inter-American relations.

Both texts present study aids at the end of the chapters. It depends largely upon the teacher how these are used. The first book mentioned gives in addition to "Some Things to Do," a list of books and motion pictures which will enrich the material presented in the book. Another feature is maps of each republic, with a smaller map comparing its size with that of the United States. A glossary is given in the back, as well as an index.

In the second book, there are questions, suggested topics and book lists (divided into reading for information and reading for pleasure). Here the pronunciations of new words are given immediately following the first appearance of the word, as well as in the combination Index, Guide to Pronunciation, and Glossary. The first part of this book is devoted to a survey of the geography of Latin America. This is very helpful but requires returning to this section as each country is studied. Double column printing is used.

Both books are designed for use in the upper grades. Cutright et al. present the material in a realistic manner, while Brown and Bailey seem to be sugar coating it.

B. M. EVES

The Woods Schools
Langhorne, Pennsylvania

U. S. Aviation in Wartime. By the American Council on Public Affairs. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. iv, 203. Cloth edition $2.50. Paper edition $2.00.

American aviation, in this war, has had such a meteoric rise that the average man is bewildered staring at the sky, watching the many types of combat, cargo, transport, and training planes. Some, who have had training in aircraft recognition, and many self-trained young boys are able to glance at a plane and say, "a B-17," or "a P-47," or "a C-54." But few would be able to tell the full story of the development of these various types or to explain their function in this war. *U. S. Aviation in Wartime* goes far beyond its stated purpose of providing "a background so that Americans can judge the capabilities and performances of United States combat aircraft." It truly gives, as stated in the Foreward, "an authoritative account of the achievements and progress of American aviation in World War II." Furthermore, it does so very lucidly and with a minimum amount of technical phraseology.

The first two chapters on combat performance in 1942 and 1943 respectively, help one become acquainted with the letters used to designate the various types of aircraft and to understand the capabilities and limitations of each type. They also help to point out certain designing and engineering problems: load vs. range, maneuverability vs. armor, air-cooling vs. liquid-cooling, etc. They make plain the important fact that there is no such thing as the "best" aircraft. The amount of detailed technical data in these chapters, as in the one on Army Air Forces Accidents, makes them valuable for reference.

It is impossible to give too much credit to the ground crews and air transport services. The chapters devoted to these branches high light this fact. The sections dealing with personnel, training, and maintenance are clearly written and give an excellent picture of the magnitude of the task of these services and the almost unbelievable work done by them.

The duties performed by the Civilian Air Patrol make inspiring and dramatic reading. This chapter will undoubtedly have great appeal to all readers. It demonstrates the hold that aviation has on its devotees and the valuable service to the country which resulted from the flying hobby. The contribution of the Civilian Air Patrol is reminiscent of the days of the amateur radio operator during World War I.

The facts and figures on the commercial airlines and the development of the public airways give a clue to the future of aviation in this country. A picture of this future may be drawn from the summary given in the final chapter. By clearly pointing out the possibilities of air transport in the future and at the same time emphasizing its limitations the picture is realistic.

With the added pages of identification silhouettes of the combat aircraft of the United Nations and the enemy, the book should find good use as a reference. Although new models and types of aircraft are being developed so rapidly that many of the ones mentioned here are already obsolescent, *U. S. Aviation in Wartime* is an authenticated, condensed source of valuable information about our wartime aviation.

ALEXANDER T. MACNUT

Hempstead, Long Island

A Short History of American Democracy. By Roy F. Nichols and Jeannette P. Nichols. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943. Pp. lxx, 626. $4.00.

This volume accomplishes the well-nigh impossible in telescoping within six hundred pages the main features of the story of American civilization from the time of the discoveries of the European explorers up to the entrance of the United States as a warring power into World War II. The aim of the authors has been to produce a compact, readily usable textbook. For this purpose they have abridged and combined three earlier volumes of their own writing. To accomplish this task they have necessarily been forced to a selection of materials and of emphases. They have given nearly equal space to each chronological period of the nation's development with perhaps some favoritism shown to the present century but the emphasis throughout is thrown on social and economic aspects of each period. The student who looks for the formal arrangement of events according to the successive administrations of presidents will have to look elsewhere.

In few volumes of the textbook variety could one find the treatment of economic and social trends developed with such thoroughness and in such a lucid and entertaining style as is done here. Beginning with the colonial period attention is paid to the dominant characteristics of family life, of the social structure, of population trends, of agricultural and industrial economy. These same themes are reverted to in each successive period and in each their relation to the political trends of the same period is definitely emphasized. Particular attention is called to the effect of the movement of populations and of industrial developments upon such evidences of the growth of democracy as the extension of manhood suffrage, the Granger movement, and the Progressive party.

The authors have done a distinctive piece of work in their treatment of foreign policy. Of particular note is one chapter which deals in unusual detail with our relations with the Orient, the Caribbean and Central and South America in the period prior to the Civil War. In this they give evidence of an interest in expansion far beyond our own borders which many authors would lead one to assume began only in the very late nineteenth century.

Particularly valuable for the teacher struggling to find an adequate but concise treatment of the history of the last ten years in the United States, are the final chapters dealing with the foreign and domestic policy of Franklin Roosevelt up to and including World War II. In this section, the authors have succeeded especially well in tracing the sequence which led the United States from a policy of isolation to one of neutrality and then of open participation.

On the whole this book should be readily usable for any student of college age, but only for the very mature high school student. It contains valuable suggestions for additional reading in an appendix. These suggestions range all the way from the well-known and standard treatments of American history to the more recent and specialized works dealing with

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particular developments. There are adequate maps and a few well-chosen illustrations although the volume does not suffer from a profusion of either.

To the teacher who is looking for a fresh interpretation of well-worn facts as well as a few fresh bits of information this book should make a most welcome and especial appeal. It is a timely contribution at a moment when we are being appealed to from every side to enliven the traditional course in American history and to make its contents pertain to the problems of American democracy today.

KATHERINE SMEDLEY

The George School
George School, Pennsylvania

Delaware's Forgotten Folk. By C. A. Weslager. Philadelphia; University of Pennsylvania Press, 1943. Pp. ix, 215. $2.50.

The Delmarva peninsula, or Eastern shore, captures the fancy of every visitor by the quaintness and picturesqueness of its countryside, towns, and boats, and the friendliness and unhurried charm of its inhabitants. Many books have been written about this unique portion of America that is so near to the large cities and industrial centers of Wilmington, Baltimore, and Philadelphia, and yet is so far removed from them in time and way of living.

This unusual book is concerned with tracing the origin and telling of the folkways of two little-known groups of people—the Nanticokes of Indian River and the Moors of Cheswold—who have maintained to a large extent their individuality as descendents of primitive races.

The history of the Nanticokes, an offshoot of the Lenni Lenape tribe who settled on the Eastern shore, adds one more stone to the already mountainous pile of regrettable instances of the white man's displacement of the Indian from his homeland. When first contacted by whites, the Nanticokes were peaceful farmers and fishermen who lived in fear of their more warlike northern neighbors, the Iroquois. The whites were at first treated hospitably, but in 1742, after losing most of their land, the Indians formed a conspiracy to eject the white invaders. This was discovered and nipped in the bud; the whites increased their pressure to be rid of the Red menace; and in the following few years most of the Indians left the peninsula. However, a handful still remain near Millsboro, and the story of their struggle to live their own lives is interestingly told by the author. No small part of this has been to achieve a status separate from the Negro.

There are many folktales concerning the origin of the Moors. All of them include the mixture of Caucasian and Indian blood. The third ingredient is somewhat doubtful. Legally, in the past, it has been established on questionable evidence as being Negro. Hence the Moors have been classed with that group, although they do not consider themselves Negro, nor do they mix with them. It seems more probable that the dark features of the Moors have come from one of the Mediterranian groups—Spanish, French, or Moor. In Delaware there are separate schools for the children of White, Negro, Indian, and Moor—witness to the fact that these people are proud of their ancestry.

The last chapter of the book, entitled "Links with the Past," is a collection of folk remedies, weather signs, crafts, and trades that have survived from early times. Here are found primitive animal traps, baskets, fishhooks, children's games, and superstitions that have been passed on from generation to generation.

In gathering data on the ancestors and customs of these peoples, the author has contributed a great deal to our knowledge of the history of the region. He has also picked up many interesting and amusing sidelights on peoples who have been touched but little changed by modern civilization. Here is a story of people who know how to live, and who refuse to lose that knowledge in the face of increasing mechanization.

JOHN CARSON

The George School
George School, Pennsylvania

Korea: Forgotten Nation. By Robert T. Oliver. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1944. Pp. 138. $2.25.

At Cairo in 1943, President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Churchill, and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek asserted the intent of the United Nations to establish "in due course" a free and independent Korea. Among thinking Americans there probably will be little dissent from this statement in principle. Culturally, at least, the Koreans have a history which has made substantial contributions to society; and in recent years, the aspiration of many Koreans to be their own political masters has won the admiration and sympathy of liberals in all parts of the world.

There will be—in fact there already is—serious disagreement as to the time and the manner in which Korea shall achieve her new status. There are, among students of Korean affairs, those who hold that the country is by no means ready to assume the responsibilities of independence, and that a long preparatory period of supervision will not only be desirable but also necessary.

Perhaps of greater importance is the fact that the future of an independent Korea will depend not only upon the Koreans themselves but also, in even greater degree, upon the post-war status and policies of Russia, China, and Japan. For the past half century

Korea has been the battleground for the conflicting interests of these three great powers. Her unique geographical position has saddled her with an importance in international politics quite out of proportion to her size, population, or her resources. Even granting the emergence after this war of the better world, it must be assumed that many of the older historical conflicts will remain or, at best, will subside slowly.

These are the problems that must be faced in the creation of the new independent Korea; and, in the opinion of the reviewer, the volume under review adds little, if anything, to their solution. Mr. Oliver appeals with some force to the emotional sympathy of the American people. He recites a familiar story—the woes of the Korean people under Japanese rule—and he cites many of the activities of Korean revolutionary leaders; but he fails to give a comprehensive picture of the realities inherent in the history of the Korean problem. His brief excursions into the history of Korea at the turn of the twentieth century are fragmentary and frequently misleading. Here and there in the text the author indulges in extravagant speculation, such, for example, as the statement p. 20: Their [Korean] Industrial Revolution, had it been permitted to develop freely, would have been far more overwhelming than anything the Occident known. These flights of fancy do not add to the credibility of the volume.

In so far as Mr. Oliver reminds his readers that there is a Korean independence movement and that Korea is not lacking in patriots, he has performed a commendable service; but it is unfortunate that he has confined himself to rehearsing time-worn fulminations on Japanese and American policy in Korea, to the exclusion of any serious grappling with the real problems that lie ahead. If the United Nations are to play a constructive part in building a new, a free Korea, they will do so, not alone on a basis of emotionalism, but on an understanding of the needs and dangers that beset the Land of Morning Calm and on a recognition that peace and stability in Korea are a part of world peace and stability.

PAUL H. CLYDE

Duke University
Durham, North Carolina

The Rising Crescent: Turkey Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow. By Ernest Jackh. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1944. Pp. x, 278. $3.50.

The present work treats primarily of Turkey from the Young Turk revolution of 1908 to the present day, though the heritage of a more remote past is sketched in by way of background. The author himself declares that "this is no history book, nor does it pretend to be an exhaustive work of reference." It should perhaps be thought of primarily as an interpretation, though it contains much historical data and, since Dr. Jackh writes of events in which he himself participated, partakes in part of the nature of a memoir. It is also something of a source book. Alfred von Kiderlen-Waechter, German ambassador at Constantinople and later foreign minister, left his papers to Dr. Jackh, and the author has drawn upon these as well as upon his own personal archives, to present quite a number of documents not hitherto published.

This is an interesting and illuminating volume. It is well written and the flow of the sentences is not materially impeded when the syntax gives an occasional reminder that English is not the author's mother tongue. The treatment seems unduly discursive at times, and the picture presented does not always appear consistent. Yet the author undoubtedly succeeds in presenting a colorful panorama not only of the part played by one of the most strategically located nations in the world in two great world crises, but also of the fascinating process of her own national rejuvination, a process which involved a metamorphosis from the sprawling Ottoman Empire to the relatively compact and homogeneous Turkish Republic. He also succeeds in what seems to have been a major purpose of the book, namely the portraying of the Turks as a proud, capable, generous, and much maligned people.

It is to be hoped, however, that this work of rehabilitation by a lifelong friend was not quite so needed in the year 1944 as the author seems to think. Not for some time has the "unspeakable Turk" personified the inhabitants of Anatolia in the eyes of the reading public of the English-speaking world.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The White Feather. By Merritt Parmelee Allen. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1944. Pp. 196. $2.00.

Teachers in the upper elementary and junior high school grades who are looking for supplementary reading materials for American history courses will find this short novel useful. It tells the story of a young man, a Kentuckian, who served under John Morgan as one of the famous Morgan Raiders. The setting is, of course, the Civil War. The story is well-told, contains much authentic informational background, yet is exciting throughout. It gives an interesting insight into the thinking and attitude of many of the Southern soldiers during the War between the States. The reader is introduced to some of the more famous of the Southern leaders, Morgan, Johnston, Beauregard, and others, and gets

some insight into their strategy in such battles as the one at Shiloh.

The chief criticism this reviewer has of the book is that the main characters are portrayed as being a little too good most of the time, as having only the highest motives for their acts, the most admirable self-control under all circumstances, and the most unusual bravery and courage in the face of all of the difficulties they encountered. For the young reader, however, this will not be a serious drawback to the novel, the other qualities of which offset this defect, if such it be.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Learning About—Education and the Peace. By Harry E. Bard. Educational Policies Commission, 1944. National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Pp. 40. 10 cents.

The Educational Policies Commission, as a result of the publication of its *Education and the People's Peace,* was urged to issue a manual for the use of secondary school students and teachers who desired to discuss the subject. Harry E. Bard, supervisor of high school history in the Baltimore schools, prepared such a manual, *Learning About—Education and the Peace.*

Although the belief appears to be growing that world organization of some kind is indispensable if peace is to be assured and war outlawed, there is nevertheless a feeling that popular opinion may lean more toward isolation than toward effective international cooperation. This pamphlet is written with the conviction that now is the time to fight for such cooperation and that the education of youth is no less important for it than the education of their elders.

The Commission holds that foremost among the means for winning the peace is education. Without international cooperation in educating for peace, international leaders may find their efforts thwarted by hostile popular attitudes, fears, and misunderstandings. Mr. Bard's manual sets forth the opportunity which the experiences of this war create for winning the peace as well as the war, canvasses the demands that a just and permanent peace imposes upon the nations, and explains the important role of education of the people of the nations. It invites classroom discussion of the various phases of the problem and supplies questions, projects, reading, and other suggested activities for promoting an understanding of the situation and fostering the essential and necessary attitudes and drives. It is a plea for the establishment of an international educational agency.

Teachers of older youth particularly will find this pamphlet useful. Although addressed to the student and avoiding many of the complications in what is a tremendously complicated situation the pamphlet does not deal with matters within the grasp of the immature.

A five-page bibliography names the leading organizations that supply materials on postwar planning and lists relevant books and magazines.

M. WOLF

Universities Committee on Postwar International Problems. June, 1944. *International Conciliation,* No. 401, Section I. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 W. 117 Street, New York 27, N.Y. Pp. 60. 5 cents.

A "must" for anyone thinking about the postwar world. Approximately one hundred Cooperating Groups of faculty members in the colleges and universities of the country have been organized since 1942 to pool their thinking about international problems. The report of their work in *International Conciliation* is the first made by that publication and is designed to give wider currency to this invaluable material; other reports are to follow. It gives a notable set of summaries of the reports of the Cooperating Groups, on five problems out of fifteen already studied: strategy for peace, methods and stages of settlement, treatment of Germany, organization for security, and relief and rehabilitation.

The thoroughness with which the various aspects of a problem were canvassed by the Cooperating Groups would be matched only by experts charged with its practical solution. To study these summaries, therefore, gives the reader a grasp of the situation which he is not likely to get anywhere else. Moreover, it is a distillation from hundreds of the best trained minds in the United States.

M. WOLF

Inter-American Education for the Man in the Street. By William T. Melchoir. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University, 1944. Pp. 31.

The J. Richard Street Lecture for 1944 delivered by an eminent professor of education before the faculty, students, and visitors who attend the annual Summer Education Conferences at Syracuse University.

The Cultural-Cooperation Program: 1938-1943. By Haldore Hanson. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1944. Pp. ii, 71. 15 cents.

A description of the development of this program with special emphasis upon the activities of the Department of State during 1942 and 1943.

Bulletin: George Peabody College for Teachers. Free

and Inexpensive Learning Materials. By Henry Harap, Director. Nashville, Tennesse: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1944. Pp. 125. 25 cents.

Teachers will find this revised edition a rather complete, up to date source of information of free and inexpensive learning materials.

The American Standard of Living. By Faith Williams and Mary P. Keohane. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1944. Pp. 60. 30 cents.

Unit No. 19 in the very excellent series of source units in "Problems of American Life."

The American Way of Business. By Oscar Lange, Abba P. Lerner and A. W. Troelstrup. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1944. Pp. 93. 30 cents.

Unit No 20 in "Problems in American Life."

Urban and Rural Living. By Louis J. Wirth and Ray Lussenhop. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1944. Pp. 56. 30 cents.

Unit No 21 in the "Problems in American Life" Series. Like all the others it maintains throughout the excellent standards of accuracy, and offers many helpful aids to teachers.

Steel Fights for the Nation. By the Congress of Industrial Organizations. Washington, D.C.: Congress of Industrial Organizations, 1944. Pp. 27. 15 cents.

Publication No. 105. A digest of the brief submitted by the United Steel Workers of America to the National War Labor Board in March 1944.

The Story of Woodrow Wilson. By David Loth. New York: The Woodrow Wilson Foundation, 1944. P. 32.

A short, accurate biography of one of the great Presidents of this nation.

Postwar Taxes. By the Twin Cities Research Bureau. St. Paul, Minn.: The Twin Cities Research Bureau, 1944. Pp. 27.

A realistic approach to the problem of Federal taxation.

Have We Food Enough For All? By F. F. Hill and F. A. Harper. March 1944. No. 89 of Public Affairs Pamphlets, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N.Y. Pp. 30. Illustrated. 10 cents.

Two members of the Department of Agricultural Economics of Cornell University explain in clear and interesting language how we can change our diet in order to increase our surpluses of foodstuffs which are required by the hungry among our Allies. They recommend less meat and more potatoes, soy beans, peanuts, beans, and wheat. The change in diet would mean no decrease in nutrition but it would permit increased production and hence more food for export. This little pamphlet is a contribution to the discussions of how to achieve global freedom from want. A brief bibliography is appended.

The Negro in America. By Maxwell S. Stewart. 1944. Public Affairs Pamphlet, No. 95. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City 20. Pp. 32. Illustrated. 10 cents.

This little pamphlet is among the best on the Negro problem. Mr. Stewart summarizes the epochal two-volume report of Gunnar Myrdal to the Carnegie Corporation. Its desire to get an unbiased study of this troublesome problem by a capable scholar impelled the Corporation to call upon the services of the distinguished Swedish social economist, Dr. Myrdal. After four years of intensive study he made a report, *An American Dilemma,* which is arousing interest and comment all over the country.

As Dr. Myrdal journeyed up and down the land in pursuit of his task he found himself forced to conclude that the average American is ignorant of the Negro problem. He thinks he knows it but actually he knows it only as he "knows" a toothache; he does not know it as a dentist "knows" the toothache. And from his ignorant knowing he dredges up, and believes in, all manner of useless cures and directives.

Strangely enough, what the whites, particularly in the South, fear most—Negro-white marriages and equality of personal relations—are what Negroes least desire; while what whites consider least important—equality in jobs and as citizens—are what the Negroes consider most important. Negroes are more interested in good housing, decent schools, and adequate playgrounds than they are in fighting segregation. This seems to be a hopeful situation to students of the problem.

American world leadership will not rest fundamentally on the military and economic superiority of the United States. Important as they are, her leadership will fail if it is not founded upon the right moral prestige. The colored races of the world, the majority of all human beings, know how we deal with the colored races in our midst. If we fail with the Negro problem at home we shall inspire among many races a distrust that will be a cancer at the core of our world leadership.

Mr. Stewart appended a brief, first-rate bibliography.

M. WOLF

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

U. S. Aviation in Wartime. By the American Council on Public Affairs. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. iv, 203. Cloth edition, $2.50. Paper edition, $2.00.

The achievements and progress of United States aviation as reported by the Office of War Information. It contains identification illustrations of leading Allied and Axis aircraft.

My Country and Yours. By Hattie M. Anderson and J. A. Hill. Austin, Texas: The Steck Company, 1944. Pp. xi, 516. Illustrated. $1.40.

A text in beginner's United States history. The many colorful illustrations enhance its usefulness, and the teaching aids add greatly to the value of the book.

A Guide to Naval Strategy. By Bernard Brodie. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1944. Pp. xiii, 314. $2.75.

This is a revised edition of an excellent treatise on the subject of naval strategy written by an expert, and brought up through the invasions of Saipan and Normandy.

Winter Wheat in the Golden Belt of Kansas. By James C. Malin. Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas Press, 1944. Pp. 290. $3.00.

A study of the process of adaptation of agriculture to the subhumid environment of the Central North American grasslands. The chapter notes and excellent index enhance the value of this volume to the reader.

America in Literature. Edited by Tremaine McDowell. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1944. Pp. xii, 540. $2.00.

An anthology of source material from American authors who have written during the last century and a half. It is an excellent book to be used in high school courses in American literature and history.

The War: Fourth Year. By Edgar McInnis. New York: The Oxford University Press, 1944. Pp. xiii, 409. $2.50.

With this volume Professor McInnis continues his well-known series of books on the present war. As in previous volumes text maps, documentary appendices, and chronological tables are included.

Korea: Forgotten Nation. By Robert T. Oliver. Washington, D.C.: American Council On Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. 138. Cloth edition, $2.25. Paper edition, $1.50.

A short account of a nation, long subject to the domination of Japan, that is now looking for its independence to come from the defeat of Japan.

The Philosophy of Bertrand Russell. Edited by Paul Arthur Schlipp. Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University, 1944. Pp. xvi, 815. $4.00.

Volume V in the Library of Living Philosophers, which has been sponsored and published by Northwestern University.

United Nations Agreements. Edited by M. B. Schnapper. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. xxxiii, 376. Cloth edition, $3.75. Paper edition, $3.25.

This volume is the documentary story of the increasing unity of the Allied nations during the past five years.

The Quakers Take Stock. By Anna L. Curtis. New York: Island Workshop Press, 1944. Pp. 112. $2.00.

A short history of the work of the Friends which sets forth an accurate account of the growth and purposes of the American Friends Service Committee.

The Future of Education. By Porter Sargent. Boston, Massachusetts: Porter Sargent, 1944. Pp. 256. $2.00.

This volume is a reprint of some of the pages which first appeared in the 28th edition of *A Handbook of Private Schools* by Porter Sargent.

Buckeye Boy. By Marjorie Medary. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1944. Pp. 263. $2.25.

An exciting novel for young readers about a boy who lived in Ohio during the middle of the last century.

Fuss 'N' Feathers. By Laura Long. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1944. Pp. 227. $2.25.

A biography of Winfield T. Scott written for young readers.

The Pageant of Chinese History. By Elizabeth Seeger. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1944. Pp. xvi, 398. $3.00.

The tenth printing of a widely used history of the Chinese people. A new chapter on "The Republic" has been added. The book presents vitally important information, new to most Americans, about our great Ally. It is so well done that this book has been selected for printing in the Armed Services edition.

Modern Political Philosophies and What They Mean. By Louis Wasserman. Philadelphia: Blakiston Company, 1944. Pp. viii, 287. 69 cents.

A concise, easily understood, and unbiased guide to modern political philosophies.

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